

*Social & Economic
Patterns
of the
Middle Atlantic States*



Annual Proceedings

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SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC PATTERNS
OF THE
MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES

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with the assistance of

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ANNUAL PROCEEDINGS

of the

MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

"The American responds to diversity as to something good, absolutely. The presence in his society of a bewildering number of races and national origins, creeds and shibboleths, economic interests and explosive ideas is to him no problem at all. On the contrary, it is a great asset. He sees diversity as the expression of freedom, the living proof that men and women are given the opportunity to be true to themselves.

"Thus it will be found — that there is not just one American way of life. There are American *ways* of life, almost without number. For example there are regional differentiations, where nature herself has conspired with American institutions to create ways of life as different from each other as those of two nations might be. New England is no more "American" than the Northwest; nor Denver more so than Atlanta. This diversity itself is the way of life — nations within nations."

"In the East the way of life is crowded. In the winter the Easterner takes to the trains and planes if he wants to go anywhere; in the summer he chugs despondently along obsolete highways, breathing carbon monoxide from the car ahead, snarled in the traffic of his unnumerable cities. He lives in

an industrial jungle. His most awe-inspiring sights are not the works of nature but the works of man. He is caught in a maze of brick walls and steel shapes, communication lines and enormous switchboards, six-lane-clover-leaf highways and railroad switchyards of such complexity that the eye cannot predict the path that a train will follow through them. The island of Manhattan consists of only twenty-two square miles of rocky lands; but two million people live on it, tier above tier, with the subways and three trunkline railroads underneath them, and tunnels under the subways, and tunnels under the rivers, and eighteen bridges gripping Long Island and the mainland. And all around them are clustered miles on miles of houses, and highways extending outward to the "dormitory towns."

"Yet the East is exciting too. It generates ideas — big, continental ideas that have had enormous influence in the development of America. The ideas radiate outward and merge with native ideas in the different regions, to bring forth new ventures and new shapes."

(Excerpts from *U.S.A. The Permanent Revolution* by Russell W. Davenport. First appearing in the February 1951 issue of *Fortune Magazine*.)

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Copies of Volume 52, and past Proceedings published by the Council, may be procured for \$1 per copy. Write to the Business Manager, John H. Niemeyer, Oak Lane Country Day School of Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa. Membership in the Middle States Council for the Social Studies at \$2 per year may be obtained through the Treasurer, Dorothy S. Allen, Alexis DuPont High School, Wilmington 6, Del.

Foreword

The 52nd Volume of the Proceedings (like the 51st) continues to be a departure from the customary publication of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. It is an attempt to combine the highlights of the annual meeting with some of the advantages of a "theme" yearbook.

Following the publication of the 51st Volume of the Proceedings — "Teaching and World Affairs," many of you approved the newer format, but urged that the scholarly addresses presented at the annual meeting be included as well, in future volumes. At Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in May of 1955, the Middle States Council was particularly fortunate to hear several inspirational addresses on the subject of the meeting — "Social and Economic Patterns of the Middle Atlantic States."

As a result of your suggestions, these addresses form the bulk of the present volume. Those of you who were fortunate enough to be present at that meeting will no doubt be happy to have a permanent record of the excellent talks. In addition, this volume includes some articles especially prepared for the publication, in order to present a well rounded picture of the Middle Atlantic States' patterns.

The Committee on Publications hopes that the 52nd Volume of the Proceedings will not only make interesting reading, but will furnish teachers with inspiration, and background material for a study of the region. The Council hopes too, that the occasional Newsletters which you receive, and which were to some extent an innovation of the past year, are of interest and value. By letting the officers of the MSCSS and the members of the Advisory Committee on Publications know your reaction, you can assure that future publications will reflect the wishes of the members of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies.

DOROTHY W. FURMAN, Editor

President's Message

Dear Middle States Members:

In October of 1954 the Middle States Council for the Social Studies invited its members to attend a weekend workshop conference at Woodside Manor, in the Pennsylvania countryside near Philadelphia. It was felt by many members that the time had come for an appraisal of the aims and programs of the Council, and especially for greater participation of the membership in planning of coming events.

In spite of Hurricane Hazel, which left Woodside Manor in darkness except for candle light, the conference was a notable success. The opportunity for thorough discussion led eventually to a number of important decisions being made. Among these was the decision to undertake a study of the social and economic patterns of the Middle Atlantic States. Upon this theme we built our spring meeting at Lancaster, where a number of aspects of this general topic were discussed. Among

these were the social and economic background of the Pennsylvania "Dutch" people who live in the Lancaster region, the development of regional planning as exemplified in the Delaware Valley, and the problem of integration of populations which is found in the large cities of our region.

Much remains to be done if we are to make this study a truly inclusive and definitive one. Present plans call for continuing along these lines, but dealing with other vital problems in the area.

It was my great pleasure to work with our members in furthering these aims during the past year. Their many contributions to the success of our efforts were deeply appreciated. I hope we shall have more and more cooperation in the work of the Council from social studies teachers in the Middle States as time goes on. I shall do what I can to help.

Sincerely yours,

GEORGE I. OESTE,

President, 1954-55

Challenges for the Future

To the Middle States Council for the Social Studies:

This issue of your annual Council publication, like the one in 1954, ventures to give you something different and something more than a report of the proceedings of our annual spring meeting. Dorothy Furman, our Editor, and her Advisory Committee on Publications have approached the problem of changing the character of this publication experimentally and with an open mind. They are to be commended for the fine results they have achieved. Yet they and our Council officers would like to know whether this is the type of publication that you want and that best serves your needs and interests.

Our Council program for this year includes the issuance of this publication and two Newsletters, our Fall Week End Workshop at Strath Haven Inn, the Joint Meeting with the National Council in November, and our Annual Spring Meeting. Last year a study of the Middle Atlantic States was initiated by our Council. It became the subject of our spring meeting and the hope was expressed that the study be continued this year. Accordingly, we plan to make a survey and study of teaching resources for the social studies in the Middle Atlantic Region. We invite your contri-

butions. If you are unable to attend our meetings please send your suggestions to our Secretary or to me. We hope to make these materials available to you when they are assembled.

We have just recently entered upon the second half century in the history of our Council. George Oeste is bringing the long and interesting account of our Council, its varied activities and leading personalities, up to date. The years immediately ahead offer challenges equal to any we have faced in the past. The re-evaluation of our curricular offerings in the light of the times we live in, a growing public interest in what we are doing in the schools, mounting school enrollments, and the need for better qualified teachers of the social studies are only a few of the issues and problems which should command Council attention.

We invite your interest and active participation in the work of our Council. And I hope that you will interest the many new people who are entering the teaching of the social studies in the program and activities of our Council. Let us endeavor to make Council membership and participation an active, productive, and delightful experience for all.

RALPH W. CORDIER,
President, 1955-56

The Middle Atlantic States in American History

By D. G. BRINTON THOMPSON
Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.

BEFORE reviewing the historical culture patterns of the Middle States it might be in order to establish the validity of this sectional study. All are used to regarding New England and the South as sections to be examined and re-examined *ad infinitum*. It is obvious that the South is in no way geographically homogeneous and also that the geographical unity of New England is more apparent than real. New England's area is broken by ridges into very disparate river valleys, and its land boundaries are not natural. The Canadian border is drawn arbitrarily, and the long New York boundary south of Lake Champlain wanders unconcernedly over hill and dale in a southerly direction until it finally loses all sense of direction and plunges erratically into Long Island Sound. In addition the economies of New England and the South display wide variations. Yet these two sections have well recognized individual characteristics that justify their study.

Common Characteristics

Likewise the Middle States; New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware; although not geographically homogeneous, have common characteristics that, from the beginning, set them apart as a section. Important among these similar characteristics are a population of differing national origin, a tolerated religious heterodoxy, an urban sophistication, and an absence of separatist tendencies. I regret that I find it difficult to include Maryland in the cultural history of the area until the middle of the nineteenth century. Previously Maryland's orientation

toward a Chesapeake Bay civilization is unmistakable.

A basic fact in the cultural history of the Middle Seaboard is that the area was first settled and organized by non-British Europeans. Not that the Dutch Colony left so weighty a mark, but it did force the English conquerors in 1664, to adapt and modify their colonial pattern. In New Netherlands the English found a people derived from many nations and withal living in considerable harmony. New Amsterdam was truly a polyglot town in which it was said seventeen languages were spoken. Practical religious toleration existed and when Stuyvesant tended to be officious the company reminded him that the "consciences of men should be free and unshackled." Nor should it be forgotten that in 1654 twenty-three Sephardic Jews, refugees from persecution, landed in New Amsterdam and founded the first Jewish congregation in the Colonies, the still flourishing Sheareth Israel.

The Dutch West India Company had been more interested in trade than in agriculture or colonization, and therefore a due concern for business has always been a trait of this section.

Ducal New York, that period, 1664-1685, when the Duke of York was proprietor, left its mark on the colony and state. New York and Maryland, because of the peculiar privileges of their proprietors, were the only colonies to establish a manorial system. The potent New York manorial aristocracy owed its origin to the Duke of York and not to the Patroons of New Netherlands. The Van

Rensselaers, the only successful Patroons were raised to the manorial rank by Ducal authority. While the pattern of New York patrician society failed to expand elsewhere, its influence was predominant in the Colony and early State, and individuals nurtured in its tradition have profoundly affected the nation as Presidents, Cabinet Officers, Judges and lawmakers. It is of the past, but it left its mark.

New Jersey, which consisted of two separate colonies until 1702, was typical of the region, with communities differing widely from each other in religious conviction. In fact, before the union much of New Jersey lived in a state of peaceful anarchy.

The towering figure of William Penn dominates the history of the British colonies along the Delaware. To be sure Swedes and Dutch had had their settlements along the river, but their only definite cultural legacy was the log cabin which the Swedes and Finns, apparently, introduced to America to become the hallmark of our westward moving frontier.

Penn, proprietor of both Pennsylvania and Delaware, conceived his colony as a holy experiment with toleration for all and a wide degree of freedom. It was his reputation that started the great flow of diverse peoples to Pennsylvania from Europe and the other Colonies. The Quakers dominated Pennsylvania until 1756 and remained the most powerful single force there until the Revolution. Looking at the period of undisturbed Quaker control a recent historian has written, "Their positive achievements in the realm of civil liberties, race relations, humanitarianism and public welfare can never be gainsaid. Where else, outside of Utopian fiction, has a government upon such idealistic principles survived for as long a period as three-quarters of a century?"*

The Quakers, except at the outset, did not control the Colony by virtue of numbers, but rather because of their influence over the newcomers, for they showed an interest in the welfare of their fellow citizens irrespective of race or creed. As a matter of fact the Quaker who became wealthy, the Quaker grandee, stands as the forerunner of those American Capitalists who conceive that much wealth presents an opportunity for much service. Quaker ideas and ideals, stemming strongly from old Pennsylvania, have permeated the whole nation and have gained almost universal respect. Quaker political power, however, perished forever with the coming of the Revolution; true to their beliefs they would not support war.

Influenced by their trust in William Penn's promise of toleration, Rhenish Germans of many Protestant denominations braved the long and uncomfortable passages to the new colony and sent back words of encouragement for others to follow. The Pennsylvania Dutch have the distinction of having maintained their individuality longer than any other sizable European minority in the United States. Besides their own rugged cohesiveness, the two greatest factors governing the success with which they held their own were that they settled in an area untrammelled by other Europeans and, most important, that they were left undisturbed by the tolerant Quaker government. Of course, the Pennsylvania Dutch differed widely in religious practice among themselves, and these differences have been preserved. The contribution of these people in the realm of ideas has not been marked, but they have added to the richness of American civilization; the Conestoga Wagon and the rifle occur quickly to mind as two of their contributions. Moreover their cultural pattern has spread into the Middle West and

*F. B. Tolles, *Meeting House and Counting House*, p 240.

down the inter-mountain valleys of the South.

By the time the Scotch-Irish inflow started, Philadelphia had established itself as the most desirable haven for the immigrant. It cannot be truthfully said that the Scotch-Irish were ever attracted by the Quakers, but they appreciated the freedom and economic opportunities of the Colony. These hard-bitten Presbyterians have left a mighty impress on the United States. They typified the fighting frontier. They welcomed the Revolution and overthrew with enthusiasm the Quaker government in Pennsylvania. Believing in an educated clergy the Presbyterians founded Princeton and other institutions which sowed their ideas far and wide.

Too much emphasis cannot be placed on these basic colonial culture patterns for out of them and their interaction developed the character of this section. This area was not truly a melting pot but rather a place where diverse peoples lived together in relative harmony without necessarily sacrificing their individuality. This toleration of difference is particularly significant where religion is concerned, for in Colonial times the world was intolerant on this subject and nowhere in the British colonies with the exception of Rhode Island, small and isolated, was there religious liberty equal to that of the Middle Colonies. It is no accident that Saint Joseph's Chapel in Philadelphia, founded in 1733, is regarded as the oldest continuously functioning Catholic church of the original thirteen states, nor that parochial schools in the United States look to the school attached to old St. Mary's in Philadelphia, established in 1763, as the first parochial school.

The prevailing religious liberty of the region is well described by the educated and observant Frenchman, Hector St. John de Crèvecoeur, who settled in the Middle Colo-

nies shortly before the Revolution and because of his travels to New England and the South could make valid comparisons. He wrote of rural New York where he lived: "When any considerable number of a particular sect happen to dwell contiguous to each other, they immediately erect a temple, and there worship the Divinity agreeably to their own peculiar ideas. Nobody disturbs them."

Certainly farming as it has developed in the United States can look to the farms of the Middle States as the archetype, and not to the plantations of the South nor to the hardscrabble township farms of New England. Only it is a pity that the farmers of America did not copy more closely the methods of the Pennsylvania Dutch, who have kept their farms at top production for two hundred and fifty years. The Middle Atlantic States have always been known for their appreciation of good food and have areas noted for their local cooking. The gourmet and well travelled author, Bayard Taylor delineated what he chooses to call "the cooking belt" of America as starting with West Chester County and New York City, then running south to include Philadelphia and Chester County, finally ending with Baltimore and adjacent Maryland.

The Realm of Ideas and the Field of Culture

The Middle Colonies developed the most progressive and sophisticated urban social life in America. From the outset the mind of this area had to adapt itself to accept a changing scene and different cultures. Except in back county settlements no group, in this area, could live undisturbed by social pressure and no government could rule successfully unless it took into consideration the heterogeneous and dynamic population. Of course the environment encouraged the pragmatic. Ben Franklin, one of the many

New Englanders to ornament the Middle Atlantic States, typifies this tendency. His mind, curious but always practical and never dogmatic, could develop richly in the free air charged with the energy of the Philadelphia of his day.

While few would contest the immense material influence of the Middle Atlantic States upon the nation, recognition of their no less potent influence in the realm of ideas and the field of culture is less general.

The contribution of these states during the Colonial era has already been noted. John Dickinson's *Letters from a Pennsylvania Farmer* and Tom Paine's *Common Sense* established the contemporaneously accepted reasons for the Revolution, and the part the section played in the origin of the government of the republic is known to all who study history. During the early days of the nation, Philadelphia received the appellation of the Athens of America long before Boston claimed the title.

After Philadelphia, New York took the lead in literary distinction. Washington Irving represents the first son of the young republic to achieve an international reputation in the field of literature. A devoted New Yorker, he brought American folklore into prominence in the *Legend of Sleepy Hollow* and *Knickerbocker's History of New York*. The novels of James Fenimore Cooper were acclaimed all over the world, and for almost a century represented America to hundreds of thousands of Europeans. Another New Yorker, the philosopher novelist, Herman Melville, more astounding as a philosopher than as a novelist, seems at first glance to belong to the New England transcendentalist school. But he had a breadth of understanding and insight into all sorts and conditions of men that seems quite removed from Boston. All three of these men, Irving, Cooper, and Melville,

were affected by the New York patrician tradition.

As the nineteenth century progressed, while Boston became for a time the focal point of American literary activity, literature flourished vigorously along the Hudson and the Delaware. The significant literary figure at the opening of the century's second half, Walt Whitman, who marked in a sense the nation's transition from its earlier life, was unmistakably a man of the Middle States.

Whitman embraced, instinctively and enthusiastically, those elements of the civilization around him that presaged the future. Nowhere were those elements so strong as on the Middle Seaboard. Virtually unknown when he wrote *Leaves of Grass*, today he is considered "a pivot upon which sectional America swings into its continental phase." To readers of today his writing seems fresh, whereas so many of the poets of the New England school seem dated. The America he wrote about was not New England, nor the South, nor the Frontier, but the land of the two rivers whose customs and tempo have, for good or bad, spread far and wide. Before he did his finest writing, he was an editor on a Brooklyn newspaper, and it became his duty and pleasure to mingle with the crowds of the metropolis. New York was raucous, pushing, full of vitality. Whitman liked it all and observed it closely. Never a cloistered philosopher, he derived his ideas from his surroundings. Directly from the life of the Middle States, his genius distilled writings full of faith in America and democracy.

Later, as New York, and to a less degree, Philadelphia, approached metropolitan status, more and more writers made their homes in the two cities. The number of prominent authors of the last half of the nineteenth century and the first decades of the twentieth, who have lived their produc-

tive years in the Middle Atlantic States probably exceeds the total of all other contemporary authors of equal repute in America. Some have been authentic local products and interpreters of the local scene; many originated elsewhere and have based the themes that brought them fame on other parts of America.

In New York the novelist William Dean Howells represents the writers from other sections who have become intimate parts of the life of the country's literary capital. Representing native novelists, Edith Wharton, probably the last of the great line of New York's aristocratic authors, portrays regretfully and poignantly the passing of the old standards of character in New York society.

In Philadelphia Dr. Weir Mitchell exemplifies the later flowering of the best of old Philadelphia culture. A leading physician, whose professional writings are still highly regarded, he wrote the best of the historical novels on Philadelphia. Travelling widely, acquainted with everybody, learned in many fields, he remained always a Philadelphia patrician of the old type. The driving tempo of modern life has made almost impossible the emergence of such a well-rounded man.

The dominant position of the Middle Atlantic States in the newspaper field has always been maintained. Horace Greely of the *Tribune* and Henry J. Raymond of the *Times* are but two names in the long list of New York's giants in the newspaper field. The vast influence which this preeminence has exerted has increased over the years, particularly recently with the passing of many fine old dailies in other cities. In addition, the period from the Civil War to the early twentieth century saw the development, especially in New York, of weekly discussion journals devoted to analysis of current political, social, and business themes

—a periodical form common at the time abroad, but new in America. Two of these in particular were of strong and widespread influence: *Harper's Weekly*, edited by George William Curtis, and the *Nation*, edited by E. L. Godkin.

Probably the outstanding literary form in the America of the later nineteenth century and the first decades of the twentieth—a period of some fifty years—was that of the monthly magazines, a product of the two great cities. Some of these, especially *Harper's Magazine*, *Scribner's Monthly*, and the *Century*, had circulations which were nationwide and stable year after year. In the first decade of the twentieth century a type of magazine appeared that featured sociological discussion with a journalistic slant: *McClure's*, *Everybody's*, the *World's Work*. In Philadelphia two remarkable magazines issued by the Curtis Publishing Company, achieved a circulation of amazing extent and permanence. One of these was a monthly, addressed to women, the *Ladies' Home Journal*. The other was the well-known weekly, the *Saturday Evening Post*.

It is an interesting fact since women hold a place in America unequalled elsewhere, that *Godey's Lady's Book* and later *The Ladies' Home Journal*, both of Philadelphia, dominated over a long period the field of women's magazines.

Virtually all material of consequence that eventually appeared in book form in America, in the half century after the Civil War, had its first appearance in the magazines and other periodicals of New York and Philadelphia. There the new author, and also the veteran with a new message, obtained dealer attention.

Though other cities claim a priority in first welcoming opera to America, none can dispute the preeminent position that New York has held for many years in presenting

grand opera. The symphony-concerts of the two cities have always maintained a high reputation. The section may lay a claim also to Stephen Foster, born in Pennsylvania, who enshrined melodies of pre-Civil War America in the hearts of the people and made them the folk songs of the land.

The theatre has looked to Broadway for a long time. The shows of America have been written, cast, and rehearsed in New York. The city left a strong impress on the accent and the manners of the players which in turn reached all the nation through numerous road companies. The early years of the moving pictures were strongly influenced by the stage, and even now, when Hollywood has developed its own customs, many of the traditions of the older art persist.

Schools devoted to the arts, in both New York and Philadelphia, became famous and attracted students from all over the country. In New York, clubs and societies, drawing their membership from those interested in writing, the stage, and the other arts, were founded, grew strong and became meeting places for prominent men from far and wide.

New York became the American refuge for all sorts of artists and intellectuals, and would-be artists and intellectuals. Greenwich Village represented for several years the unique spot in America where the non-conformist could lead a Bohemian life surrounded by his fellows and untrammelled by convention. The different nationalities, the bustle, and the surging tempo of the great city exerted a potent influence on the thronging artists and on their creations. Certainly, since the Civil War and up to the recent rise of Hollywood, the Middle Atlantic States represent the leading force affecting American culture.

New Peoples, New Ideas, and New Techniques

The mind of the Middle Seaboard has always been conditioned by the constant flux and activity of the area. New peoples, new ideas, and new techniques always were impinging on this section. No relatively undisturbed culture could develop here as it did in New England and the Old South. This has not meant eclecticism but rather adaptation. At an early period, a toleration of different customs and cultures prevailed in the area and has on the whole continued. Foreign colonies, such as the Little Italys of later years, were always evident in New York. This toleration has not at all been characteristic of New England, the South, or the Middle West with its particular accent on standardization. Moreover, on the Middle Seaboard, groups homogeneous within themselves, but of radically different make-up, learned to live in the same community with a minimum of friction, and sometimes a minimum of contact. Lack of standardization has not proved the source of weakness one would expect, for in many crises the widely differing groups stood together. Bonds existed deep down in the community that held together people of different religion, different manners, and different class.

The idea of social service, not merely as a function of government, but as a private responsibility, represents a valuable part of the American heritage. Its roots go back far into the history of the Middle Colonies and their successor states. The controlling force in old Pennsylvania, the Quakers, did not content themselves with the negative virtue of toleration, but strove to alleviate the condition of the unfortunate. Philadelphia pioneered in the care of the impoverished sick, the insane, and the destitute. William Penn's moral code stood far in advance of

the times, too far indeed to resist an eventual retrograde revision. In 1831, unsociable Stephen Girard died in Philadelphia leaving the bulk of his fortune, the largest up to then ever probated in America, for the education of orphans, a fitting act for this leading citizen of the City of Brotherly Love.

Urban life has always played a major part in molding the thought of this area. Two cities have dominated its culture, and in the two great centers, an aristocratic and cosmopolitan outlook has always been present, although the First World War, with its all pervading repercussions, has dimmed the first characteristic. In colonial and early national days, Philadelphia ranked as the foremost city in North America. Not only did she serve as the chief entry port for tens of thousands of immigrants, but it was to Philadelphia more than any other place in the land that distinguished visitors, American and foreign, were attracted. When in the nineteenth century New York replaced Philadelphia as the metropolis of the continent, the main difference was that the flood of immigrants had swelled to millions, and distinguished visitors came not only from America and Europe, but from all the world. The prevailing thought of the section continued to be cosmopolitan and sophisticated. This sophistication might be railed against by other sections, but the big towns of the

Middle West copied New York as best they were able, while New York copied none.

The aristocratic tradition that lingered so long on the Middle Seaboard profoundly affected the thinking of the area. It presented an elegant and wordly-wise way of life, not ostentatiously simple as in New England, nor regional as in the South. Outside the strict limits of the section, traditional Baltimore society resembled that of the two cities to the north. European manners and morals neither overly shocked nor abashed the Middle Seaboard. These states have not had to express a feeling of inferiority towards the greater polish of Europe by vaunting the crudities of American life as virtues. Likewise, isolationism could never figure large in the thought of a region that constantly viewed evidences of our bonds to Europe.

No section has been less affected by the virus of separatism, for no section maintained over the years such strong financial, commercial, and personal ties with all sections as have the Middle Atlantic States. The mind of this area, while proud and jealous of its local position, regarded the whole country as its sphere, much as Englishmen viewed the Empire in its days of greatness. The predominating thought of the Middle Atlantic States has been unionist in sentiment and imperial in scope.

“Junior Ambassadors”

By CHARLES W. RAY

Malverne High School, Malverne, N. Y.

ONE of the outstanding experiments in international understanding and relationships is that conducted by the New York HERALD TRIBUNE in conjunction with Pan-American Airways and Trans-World

Airlines. The project was begun nine years ago, and each year it has grown in interest and scope. Today, thirty-four countries from over the world each send one of their outstanding students to the United States to

live for three months in the homes of typical American families and to attend our American high schools.

These youngsters are chosen through a series of examinations under the supervision of the respective Ministers of Education in each country. In many of these countries the number of young people sitting for the examination runs into the hundreds. The educational programs of many countries, quite unlike our own democratic system, are ones of selection and as a result the youngsters who come to this country as a part of this program represent the best these countries have to offer.

These "Junior Ambassadors" bring with them their native dress and customs and many pictures of their homes, schools, and families along with material products of their culture interesting to American youth. Within a few days of their arrival the visitors have so integrated themselves that it is often difficult to distinguish them from our own boys and girls.

Each of these young men and women is a guest of five families and five schools in the course of three months and in most cases visit a school community in pairs. Each takes part in the regular home activities, chores, etc. as is required of his host. Within two days of orientation the visitors become a regular participant in classroom work and discussions. Through this coming together, hundreds of young Americans have increased interest in world affairs; and through delegate appraisal of the United States, our high school youth are able to reevaluate the accomplishments of American Democracy. It also gives the youngsters an opportunity to broaden their horizons and to make friends with other young people over the world.

Each school approaches this program in its own way and there is an understandable

variation in the procedures, the amount of entertainment, the participation in classroom work, the degree of supervision, and even in the choice of host families. Approximately eighty-five high schools in the metropolitan New York area are active in this project. One teacher in each school acts as faculty adviser and has the burden of all local planning and arrangements. There is an attempt made to correlate interests of Parent-Teacher groups, local civic groups and organizations, and churches with that of the public school community. One of the principal features and challenges of the program is to show each visitor a cross-section of community life and home life in this short period.

It is most interesting to see how easily the youngsters, both our own and our visitors, bridge the gap of cultures and backgrounds. In no time they begin to realize that youth the world over face identical problems. Youth, whether from the East or the West, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, or the Americas finds they have, in common, many ideals, hopes, and aspirations. All are seeking a world where mankind can live together peacefully, where poverty will no longer be the scourge of the people, where freedom of thought and religion can be truly practiced, and where their own lives and the lives of their children can be lived in comparative security. It is, in most instances, only methods of attainment that differ and cause a variance in opinions.

Naturally, different points of view are brought into focus most pointedly when discussing "the world we want," the world of tomorrow for those who today are preparing for the inevitable roles that they will play in that tomorrow. These young people, our own as well as our guests, do a most extraordinary job analyzing the past and plotting a course for the future. The quality of thinking and the degree of perception

displayed gives rise to the mature belief that a world left in their hands when they are ready to accept the mantle of responsible leadership certainly cannot go far wrong. The governments represented can well be proud of these "Junior Ambassadors." In them, no doubt, the future of their countries rests.

Three months passed all too quickly for everyone concerned and we Americans were reluctant to see our guests leave for home. The final meeting of all these students was held late in March. This year it was held on March 26th, as the annual New York *Herald Tribune* Forum for High Schools. More than two thousand high school youngsters filled the General Assembly chambers of the United Nations in New York City, to hear the final summation of the visitors' twelve weeks in this country and to blueprint the future world they hope to see. Harold E. Stassen, former Director of the United States Foreign Operations Administration and the newly appointed Secretary

of Peace and Disarmament in President Eisenhower's Cabinet, and Dag Hammarskjöld, Secretary-General of the United Nations, and Whitelaw Reid, President and Editor of the New York *Herald Tribune*, were the principal speakers. Portions of the program were broadcast over the major radio networks and television channels. The Voice of America carried the program to all corners of the world as a part of its regular broadcast to the peoples behind the Iron Curtain.

The program is under the direct supervision of the Forum director, Mrs. Helen Hiatt Waller. Following the final meeting here in New York City, the entire group, under the direction of Mrs. Waller, left by plane for a tour of Europe and Asia where the program presented at the United Nations on March 26th was repeated in six or seven cities over the world. This world tour was made possible through a grant from the Ford Foundation.

Our Puerto Rican Pupils

A Study in Integration

CHARLES M. SHAPP

Junior High School 52, The Bronx, New York City

THE story of America's growth and success is essentially the integration of our people. Decade after decade the migrations came, now one ethnic group and now another; a diversity of languages, of cultures, of creeds. That the integrative process was effective can be seen in the unity of our people.

In the past the approach to the problem was neither organized nor scientific. It was successful but slow. Today we are trying to solve similar problems through planned programs.

Since World War II the Puerto Rican population of New York City has grown to almost one-half million. There are at present about 90,000 Puerto Rican pupils in the New York City schools.

The Puerto Rican Study

What are the schools of New York doing to integrate these children into our society? The Ford Foundation, in cooperation with the Board of Education, has sponsored and financed a special Puerto Rican Study under the directorship of Dr. J. Cayce Morrison. This Study is gathering the data necessary to solve the sociological and educational problems of orientation of Puerto Rican children.

All the investigations of the Study, plus the experiences of school people, point to six major problems. It should be said at the very outset that these are not peculiar to Puerto Ricans. Rather do we see these prob-

lems as existing in any community where a large number of newcomers of a different culture become concentrated in overcrowded, rundown houses.

Six Major Problems

1. How can we get non-English speaking people to learn and use the English language?

2. How can we reduce the fear and suspicion existing between the newcomers and the natives? In all too many instances the new arrivals have been exploited. This, together with the hostile attitudes too often manifested toward them, generates antagonisms that tear a community apart.

3. How can we most effectively assimilate new elements into the community? To dissipate fear and suspicion, the new elements must become involved in the life of the community. It is important to win the new people to participation in parent-teacher organizations, community councils, adult education classes, fraternal organizations and other community activities.

4. How can we combat juvenile delinquency? This looms as our major problem. Poverty, overcrowding and intergroup tensions are not the sole causative factors. Natural restlessness of adolescents becomes dangerous in communities where many homes are broken, where both parents are working and where, all too frequently, parental care is inadequate.

5. How can we provide Puerto Rican children with the best educational and vocational guidance?

6. How can we provide the best health guidance? Overcrowded living conditions and differences in cultural background make it necessary that the schools engage in a vigorous program of health education, with particular emphasis on diet and sanitation.

One School's Procedures

If social studies is to be defined in its

broadest sense, all six of the above problems fall within its purview. We in New York feel that we have made some progress toward the solution of these problems through the teaching of the social studies. Following are some examples of what is being done in one school, the Thomas Knowlton Junior High School. This school is located in one of the most underprivileged areas of the city. One-half of the student population is of Puerto Rican origin.

Our major and ongoing procedure in helping students study their society is to make school life a living experience. We try to establish that atmosphere which we would like to see prevail in the daily life of citizens in the community. As far as possible, regimentation and decree are avoided. Children move informally from class to class; the slogan for change of period is "You may talk, but you may not shout." The classroom is relaxed and informal. A by-word of the classroom is "You may hand your friend a pencil; you may not throw it." The teachers are friendly and do everything possible to win the confidence of their students.

No opportunity is lost for giving responsibility to the pupils. The Knowlton Senate is elected by the students. Students must register in advance if they wish to vote. They register on their own time, before or after school, or during lunch hour. It is interesting to note that we get out about 55% to 60% of the electorate—just about what our country achieves in a presidential election. These elections are the occasion for many lessons in citizenship and government.

The Senate has absolute control of the student treasury. Not even the principal may spend one dollar of these funds unless his request has been approved by this body. In fact, the principal was recently refused a request for \$2.00 to purchase a wooden file box. The respectful letter of the Senate

secretary politely informed him that the item could be manufactured in the school shop for 25c.

The senior class, through its elected senior council, plans, organizes and executes its own graduation exercises. The faculty advisor to this council guides but very scrupulously avoids direct leadership. The Student Court and the Student Patrol take on a substantial part of the burden of policing the school. It has been noted with some satisfaction that even the most aggressive child is unhappy about being hailed before the Student Court. A school newspaper, grade newspapers, and a science newsletter are published by student committees.

With the full support of an understanding and judicious staff, we now have all ethnic sectors of the school represented in these undertakings. We feel safe in saying that within the last four years there has not been one single incident of friction arising out of derogatory remarks about national origins or color. Let there be no misapprehension; our boys fight and scrap as do all adolescents. The only assurance that we can give is that, to the extent to which they do fight, they beat the tar out of each other regardless of race, color or creed!

Of necessity we lay great emphasis upon teaching English to our Puerto Rican students. The children with the most serious language handicap spend the greater part of the day in learning English. The language lessons are almost entirely designed around social studies content. The topics discussed include life at home, relationship to parents and friends, life in the community, communication in our city and country, transportation in our city and country, the customs and mores of our country and people, the national holidays and the great men of our history. Frequent trips are taken around the immediate neighborhood and to points

of historic importance throughout the city.

We lose no opportunity to involve the students in projects related to the community. On one occasion, a class of students undertook to do something about the serious narcotics situation in this area. Under the guidance of a competent teacher, the students constructed a huge map of the community. This was divided up section by section among several committees. The pupils then planned and organized an anti-narcotics rally in the school auditorium. They wrote a play and invited speakers from the Police Department, Board of Education and Board of Health. They prepared a large quantity of flyers in English and Spanish advertising the rally. These were illustrated with original linoleum block pictures. Ten thousand of these flyers were then printed in two colors in our own graphic arts shop. Student committees distributed these notices in their designated neighborhood sections.

The rally was successful. Of significance to us, however, was the strengthening of the school-community relationships and the extent of social studies learning involved. In addition to the experience and practice in working together, these students learned a great deal about how our government works, about the countries from which narcotics come, and about the problems of policing our country's vast borders.

A similar example of making a classroom of the community was demonstrated by a 9th year class whose teacher was developing a study of the United Nations. Instead of beginning with the U.N.'s international aspects, this teacher led the class to an interest in the heterogeneous nature of our immediate local community. The students decided to make a moving picture entitled: "Our Community—A Small U.N." A multitude of studies, social, mathematical, language and scientific went into the work. Surveys

were made; questionnaires distributed and summarized; numerous interviews were held. All these were recorded in the film. (We deliberately avoided putting a sound track on the film. Thus the students had to write a script to fit the film in timing and content, and to narrate this script at each and every showing of the film—a valuable experience for children learning English.) This undertaking very naturally led to a study of the real U.N. and of some of the documents that went into its making.

Throughout the social studies program, an effort is made to show respect and appreciation for Spanish culture. An outstanding contribution in this direction is made by our Pan-American Club. We are careful to include in the membership of this organization children other than Puerto Ricans. This Club prepares at least one exhibit and one assembly program based on Spanish or Puerto Rican events. These programs always include the Mambo band whose repertoire is entirely music of Spanish derivation.

Reaching the Parents

Reaching the parents of this community has been a particularly baffling problem. The major obstacle is probably the language handicap. Running meetings in two languages creates distractions which discourage

attendance. There are other factors; working parents cannot attend meetings; the Junior High School district is so large that transportation is difficult for some parents. Nonetheless, there is a fairly large attendance at parent meetings when student performances are the attraction. At these meetings, in addition to the entertainment program, we undertake to interpret the school program to the parents. Representatives of various agencies are brought in to lead discussion on community problems. Parent interest in the school's work has been growing very slowly.

Reasonable progress is being made in the teaching of social studies knowledge and skills. Evaluation of citizenship habits and attitudes are not easy to measure. However, it is the consensus of the professional and lay people involved in our school program that growth along these lines is notable. Frequent observations clearly indicate a reduction in tension among our students. Incidents of violence within the school walls have almost disappeared. Cooperative planning and execution of all types of projects, academic, social and civic, are steadily increasing.

Such progress as we have made we attribute to our effort to make social studies meaningful and realistic for the children.

The World's Best Bombing Run: Metropolitan Regions in the Middle States

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"It is like one of the great migrations of the peoples of Asia, of Europe," declared a scholarly German in Emerson Hough's *Fifty-Four Forty or Fight*. "I say to you, it is a great epoch. There is a folk-movement such as we have not seen since the days of the Huns, the Goths, the Vandals . . . It is an epoch, my friend!"

Accustomed as we are to population shifts in the millions, it may come as a sur-

prise to learn that this effusion was occasioned by the migration of just one thousand men into Oregon in the 1840's. No great sagas have been written about American population movements in the middle years of this century, but in terms of sheer numbers they dwarf the tribal invasions of the early Middle Ages and the westward surge in American history. During the decade

1940-1950, for example, more than nine million people were added to the population of the suburbs of our largest cities.

Within a single life span, momentous changes have occurred in the distribution of the nation's population. In 1900 three out of five Americans lived in rural territory. In 1950 more than three out of five lived in urban territory. More and more, our population tends to cluster about cities, chiefly the biggest cities. By 1950 well over half the people of this country were concentrated in 168 *standard metropolitan areas*. Such a region is defined by the Bureau of the Census as "one or more contiguous counties containing at least one central city of over 50,000 population as the core of an economically and socially integrated cluster of people." In more colorful language, these areas have been called a "galaxy of urban solar systems." The combined population of these metropolitan areas now exceeds 84 million inhabitants. It was in these 168 areas that the most spectacular population increase occurred during the 1940-1950 decade. As we have seen, the population of the outskirts rose by more than nine million, while the central cores gained some 5.6 millions. All told, the population increase in metropolitan areas accounted for 80 per cent of the national increment during the decade. Truly we are becoming a nation of urbanities and suburbanities.

In no section of the country has urban-

TABLE 1

URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION
IN THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES, 1950

State	Total Population	Urban	Rural	Per Cent Urban
Delaware	318,085	199,122	118,963	62.6
District of Columbia	802,178	802,178	—	100.0
Maryland	2,343,001	1,615,902	727,099	69.0
New Jersey	4,835,329	4,186,207	649,122	86.6
New York	14,830,192	12,682,446	2,147,746	85.5
Pennsylvania	10,498,012	7,403,036	3,094,976	70.5
	33,626,797	26,888,891	6,737,906	80.0

Source: *The Municipal Year Book*, 1951. (International City Managers' Association).

ization progressed further than the Middle Atlantic States, including the District of Columbia. As Table 1 indicates, the last census found New Jersey 86.6 per cent urban — the highest proportion of all forty-eight states. The District of Columbia is completely urbanized. Sixty-four per cent of all the nation's population resides in urban territory; in the Middle States the proportion is eighty per cent.

The Metropolitan Area: A Basic Local Unit

Along the Atlantic Coast, from New York to Washington, the open countryside is rapidly disappearing. Within a decade or two the seaboard will be transformed into an unbroken urban area. It has already been called "the world's best bombing run," for it is so thickly covered with prime targets that an attacker from the air could hardly miss. This expansion of urban territory, so portentous for the future, is due not to the extension of existing urban centers — for their growth has slowed down — but to a rapid spread at their peripheries. Table 2 clearly indicates how the environs of New York City grew more than twice as fast as the city itself from 1940 to 1950, while from 1950 to 1954 the ratio was more than four to one. As more and more people pour into low-density territory the metropolitan area rather than the core city is becoming the basic economic and social unit.

TABLE 2

GROWTH OF NEW YORK CITY
AND ENVIRONS, 1890-1954

Years	Increase in Population in New York City (in thousands)	Increase in Population in Environs (in Thousands)
1890-1900	930	497
1900-1910	1,330	764
1910-1920	853	678
1920-1930	1,310	1,193
1930-1940	525	350
1940-1950	437	996
1950-1954	215	898

Source: *Metropolis in the Making: The Next Twenty-Five Years in the New York Metropolitan Region* (Regional Plan Association, 1955.)

What impels city-dwellers to leave their native grounds for the countryside? If you work in a big city, you can obtain the views of the suburbanites themselves by interviewing your colleagues who make a round trip of 40, 60, even 80 miles each working day. One will explain how he longed to escape smoke and dirt, crowded subways and lack of closet space. Another had visions of owning a house and a small tract of land where that green thumb could be exercised. "It is pleasant to walk on your own land and feel your own green grass and plan your own mysteries of birth and bloom," declares a man who spent his childhood and youth in Philadelphia and New York. Many were attracted by the prospect of more play space, safer play conditions, and the benefits of country life for their children. Some thought taxes would be lower. Others believed they would improve their families' chances of survival in the event of an atomic war.

Although teachers as a group have not greatly benefitted, a decade of national prosperity since the end of World War II has improved the economic condition of millions of families to the point where they can now satisfy their desires for home ownership. Mass produced suburbs, such as the Levittown on Long Island and the Levittown in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, have kept the price of the coveted deed of ownership within their reach. Increased automobile ownership along with better roads have freed home owners from their dependence on the railroad and enabled them to live miles from the nearest station. As a result, there has been a greater dispersion of suburban population. "The regional metropolis is the child of the motor age," declared Austin J. Tobin, Executive Director of the Port of New York Authority.

"Suburbanitis": An Affliction of Central Cities

The tidal wave of population to the sub-

urbs has created financial problems for the mother cities. Those who move outside the city limits are in the upper-income brackets — middle class families or the economically privileged among the working class. The poorer families, of course, cannot afford to build homes or rent garden apartments in the suburbs. Consequently, those who remain behind in the central city, whether rich or poor, must shoulder a heavier burden to maintain essential services. Heavier taxes, in turn, encourage more families to move out, and the financial problem is intensified. Thus a vicious cycle is set in motion.

The loss of solid middle-class citizens hurts the city in other ways. Historically this class has formed the nucleus of "good government" forces, organized to combat the evils of municipal politics. A mass exodus of this group weakens the ranks of municipal reformers. The city's revenue sources are also impaired as highly appraised residential sections become low income, depreciated areas. In such regions, decent apartment houses are transformed into down-at-the-heels tenements and one and two-family homes are converted into cheap boarding houses. As a result, the city becomes spotted with blighted areas, where property values and tax receipts are sharply reduced.

When people of means move out of the central city, they are often replaced by underprivileged groups whose problems require heavy municipal expenditures. Among recent arrivals in New York City, the most numerous has been the Puerto Rican minority. During the past fifteen years they have made their way to the city by the hundred thousand; today one in twenty New Yorkers is a native of the Caribbean Isle. Low living standards, limited economic opportunities, and mass unemployment in their teeming little island have impelled them to

migrate to the mainland. But they have scarcely found a land flowing with milk and honey. Poor education, lack of occupational skills, and a language handicap have kept the great bulk in low-paying jobs. The city, in turn, has carried a heavy caseload of Puerto Ricans on home relief. Last Spring a metropolitan newspaper unearthed a report of the city's Welfare Department which indicated that they constituted 27 per cent of the persons on relief. In housing, too, their misfortunes have created burdensome problems for the city. After traveling 75,000 miles on housing missions for the United Nations, Charles Abrams, Rent Administrator for New York State, concluded that the Harlem slums that shelter Puerto Ricans are "among the worst in the world." Overcrowding is so intense, he stated, "that family morale and family structure are virtually impossible to sustain." This is the principal reason, he explained, "for the large number of Spanish names in the Family Court and in Youth Term." Large numbers of foreign-born pupils with diverse cultural backgrounds require special provision in the schools. To help these students adjust to their new environment, specially trained teachers, small orientation classes, and even specially devised intelligence tests must be provided. Data published by the Bureau of Administrative and Budgetary Research of the New York City Board of Education indicate that in recent years three-fourths of all non-English speaking pupils in New York schools have been natives of Puerto Rico. That is why city authorities sought and obtained a special grant from the state legislature last spring to support the program of educating Puerto Rican children. Puerto Rico has been called "the nation's poorhouse," the municipal fathers sometimes point out. Because four out of five of its emigrants to the mainland settle in New York, the city must grapple with a

nation-wide problem with limited municipal funds.

Incidentally, the shifting tides of metropolitan life have effected drastic changes in many city schools. As we have seen, when middle-income and well-to-do families move to the suburbs, the neighborhoods they abandon become depressed areas. Spot maps prepared by New York City's Youth Board indicate that such regions produce the highest general delinquency rate for the 5-to-20 year age group. Bad housing, overcrowded homes, unstable family conditions, and inadequate play space produce the setting in which juvenile delinquency flourishes. Most children brought up in slum areas are neither delinquents nor pre-delinquents, but a handful of maladjusted students in each classroom can convert a "good" school in a declining area to a school that is difficult for teachers and administrators alike.

The Suburbs Also Have Problems

In the suburbs, too, the hectic population spiral of the last decade has brought growing pains. The mushrooming of new developments and the feverish expansion of older towns has created a pressing need for new community services. Virtually all suburban towns are beset with problems of safe water supply and waste disposal. In many such areas police and fire protection, street maintenance, and new schools are also sharp problems. Sometimes developers who have wrung their profits out of the land they accumulated for subdivision have moved on, leaving behind communities without properly constructed streets, parks or recreational areas, hospitals, and other vital facilities.

It is perfectly true that some suburban municipalities have achieved outstanding success in solving specific problems. Despite teacher shortages and high construction costs in and around New York City, the communities of Bronxville and Scarsdale in

Westchester County and Manhasset and Great Neck on Long Island have built up top-ranking school systems. They have pioneered in teaching methods, school administration, and school architecture. The excellent reputation enjoyed by these school systems may be ascribed partly to the wealth of their respective communities, but more particularly to the support of a school-minded public, willing to tax itself to provide the best for its children. This is demonstrated by their expenditures on instructional costs, exclusive of debt service and capital outlay, during the 1953-1954 school year, which ranged from \$700 per pupil in Bronxville to \$564 in Great Neck. These are noteworthy accomplishments, but it took more than local support to achieve them. For each of these communities benefitted from generous state aid. During the 1953-1954 school year New York State paid 41.2 per cent of its communities' educational costs, as contrasted with Connecticut's 26.8 per cent and New Jersey's 16.6.¹

Need for Area-Wide Cooperation

The fact is that the well-being of a metropolitan region will not be served if the central city and the fringe, as the outlying area is commonly called, attempt to solve their problems independently. The suburbs, for example, are often ideal places to build parks and open-air recreational facilities which the people of the densely populated core need badly. The outlying sections, however, can scarcely be expected to provide such facilities out of their own meagre resources. On the other hand, the newly built suburban towns need police and fire protection, water supply, and many other services, often too costly for minor municipalities. The sewage disposal system of one town must not contaminate the water supply

system of its neighbors. Contagion and disease must be halted in every part of the region to prevent their spread over the entire metropolis. Gangsters in flight do not halt at municipal boundary lines. What is required to cope with these problems is area-wide planning. The city has a stake in the suburbs and the suburbs in the city; co-operation will benefit all concerned.

One way to achieve this objective is to ask the national government to step in. That has happened in many European countries. A quarter of a century ago, for example, the government of Great Britain took over the transit system of Greater London, including the Underground, buses, taxicabs, and suburban railroads running into the metropolis. In the light of our country's size and federal tradition, however, that solution is scarcely feasible.

Another way out is to seek the aid of state governments. As we have seen, state aid has played a vital part in maintaining local educational services during an inflationary period. But a half century ago, George Washington Plunkitt, a Tammany sachem who had served in the State Senate, pointed out a good reason why city governments might well hesitate before applying to state legislatures to resolve their problems:

Did you ever go up to Albany from this city with a delegation that wanted anything from the Legislature? No Well don't. The hayseeds who run all the committees will look at you as if you were a child that didn't know what it wanted, and will tell you in so many words to go home and be good and the Legislature will give you whatever it thinks is good for you.

Discounting Plunkitt's exaggeration and the penchant for colorful speech evinced by the journalist — author of *Plunkitt of Tammany Hall*, a residue of truth still re-

¹In all fairness to New Jersey, it must be pointed out that it has recently raised its contribution to 30 per cent of the educational costs of its school districts.

mains in this outburst. Despite the phenomenal growth of cities in recent decades, agricultural areas have been slow to yield a fair share of political power. In many state legislatures cities are flagrantly under-represented. And rural-minded legislators are not always inclined to keep well-informed or act sympathetically on the problems of metropolitan areas.

In recent years the most successful approach to handling the common problems of metropolitan districts has been planning on a metropolitan scale. Last year the Regional Plan Association made an award to Lawson Purdy, the first Chairman of its Board of Directors, for his outstanding contributions to the New York Metropolitan Region "through its planning as one physical and economic unit." The concept stated in the quotation provides the key to workable solutions to area-wide problems.

The oldest, and sometimes the easiest, way of solving metropolitan problems is the annexation of fringe communities by the central city. That is how our greatest cities reached their present size. The most dramatic example is Los Angeles, which expanded from 43 square miles in 1900 to 453 square miles in 1950. Today, Los Angeles is one of the largest cities in the world. During the past decade annexation has picked up momentum, particularly in the South and West. Fort Worth, Texas, has tripled its land area; Houston added 79 square miles and 102,000 new residents in 1949; Atlanta, Georgia, increased its area 228 per cent and its population by 100,000 in 1951.

When the "parent city" annexes its suburbs, the metropolitan area becomes a single political and economic unit. Since one government replaces many, the political and administrative machinery for the entire area is simplified and may become more efficient and economical. One reason our

big cities are facing financial difficulties is that the people who sleep in the suburbs but work in the city enjoy the city's services. They depend on the city for employment, recreation, protection, amusement, shopping, and transportation, yet they pay no direct taxes to the city. Annexation is a way of spreading a share of the cost of city services among people who have benefitted from them, but who live outside the city's taxing jurisdiction. From the other viewpoint, residents living in annexed territories also gain advantages. City services, from garbage collection to police protection, are added to the more generalized services everyone living within the greater city's boundaries receives. Some dwellers in unincorporated fringe areas have reached the conclusion that annexation to an existing city is a cheaper way of acquiring needed facilities than incorporating as a city and building them up from scratch.

Planning on a Metropolitan Scale

In recent years the metropolitan centers of the Middle Atlantic States have incorporated into their boundaries only thin slivers of territory. All told, there were just two annexations in 1954: Rochester, New York, added one-tenth of a square mile and Lancaster, Pennsylvania, just five acres. The last major annexation occurred in 1918, when Baltimore increased its area from 31.6 to 91.9 square miles. Since 1900 New York City has annexed no territory; Philadelphia and Buffalo very small areas.

In these states there are serious obstacles to the expansion limits. When annexation takes place, it is usually unincorporated territory that is added to the metropolis: its residents have not developed local pride and do not resent being "swallowed up" by a bigger neighbor. As we have seen, however, along our coastal plain we are developing a continuous urban area. This means that the typical metropolis in this section of the

country is ringed with cities, each possessing as much independence as the core itself. This acts as a barrier to growth. Pittsburgh did succeed in annexing the neighboring City of Allegheny in 1907, but the way this transpired brought national censure on "The Smoky City." Today Pittsburgh is hampered in its dealings with its smaller neighbors by the fear that it may try another "steal." Sometimes suburbs cherish their independence because tax rates are low and they are unwilling to share the burdens of the central city. Finally, legal obstacles may stand in the way. Philadelphia is part of Pennsylvania, but its outskirts extend into New Jersey. Some of New York's suburbs are located in New Jersey and Connecticut. Washington's "daytime" citizens commute from Maryland and Virginia. Buffalo has suburbs in Canada. When a city touches a state boundary, its limits cannot be extended across the border without the surrender of part of its territory by the neighboring state, a sacrifice to which no state is likely to consent.

Some metropolitan areas have worked out practical arrangements for cooperation which fall short of political consolidation. Thus Rochester, New York, handles its suburbs' sewage disposal for set fees. A number of counties in Maryland have turned over their water supply systems to the City of Baltimore, which operates them on a contract basis.

On the surface, the sale of public services by a city to its fringe seems the easiest way of coping with metropolitan problems; actually it is not a completely satisfactory answer. The cooperation is sometimes too limited to cope successfully even with routine situations. This was illustrated strikingly some years ago when a fire broke out in "No-Man's Land," a strip of territory near Chicago belonging to no particular city. The

fire department of the City of Evanston tried to put out the fire, using the hydrants of the village of Kenilworth. Thereupon the Kenilworth chief of police ripped the hoses from the hydrants, arguing that his village had agreed to supply "No-Man's Land" with water for home use but not for fire-fighting. The chief of police won his argument, but the principal building in the neighborhood burned down. The sale of services by a municipality may be an acceptable stop-gap answer to area-wide emergencies, but it is not a long-range solution.

Another approach is the creation of special districts to handle specific activities for an entire metropolitan area. Best known among units of this type are school districts. More comprehensive in nature is the Maryland-National Capitol Planning Commission, encompassing the District of Columbia and southern Maryland, which operates parks, performs planning and zoning functions, and handles flood control. In this section of the country the biggest of all is the Port of New York Authority, which has capital investments of more than a half billion dollars. This bi-state authority, created by New Jersey and New York to plan the development of the Port of New York, constructs and operates tunnels, airports, bridges, freight and bus terminals, waterfront piers, and other port facilities.

The creation of special districts (or metropolitan districts, as they are sometimes called) has been described as an "easy, immediate way of handling urgent needs." Such districts provide an efficient consolidation of government services that cuts across an area's political boundaries. As a matter of fact, they can be "tailor made," for they need include only communities having a common problem.

On the other hand, metropolitan authorities have been termed "expedient, short-

term solutions." Expedient because they have a greater chance of success than structural reorganization of the government. Short term because they comprise a piecemeal approach that leaves many problems unsolved. Often they create new problems. In some regions local jurisdictions have proliferated until a jungle of local governmental authorities has grown up. In the New York City-northeast New Jersey metropolitan area, for example, there are over a thousand different governmental units. Such multiplicity of petty governments spells waste, confusion, and lack of democratic controls. Professor Charles Merriam once observed that in the 1930's the only efficient agencies organized on a genuinely regional basis in the Chicago area were those of Al Capone and Samuel Insull.

Arrangements for functional consolidation, such as the sale of services by a central city and ad hoc regional authorities, have been called the "first halting steps toward metropolitan integration." But political scientists have long advocated more drastic measures to meet area-wide needs. One possibility is the expansion of county government to serve an entire metropolitan area. This involves merging the total area and governments of all municipalities inside the county with the county government itself; thereby duplication of government within the region is eliminated. In several up-state counties of New York State a partial, functional consolidation has already taken place. For some time Erie County has been providing libraries, hospitals, and other welfare services for Buffalo and its suburbs. In 1954 Rochester and Monroe County consolidated their defense activities and started work on a joint civic center project. That same year Syracuse and Onondaga County agreed that the latter would provide sewage disposal services for the central city and its environs.

But this approach is not practicable in the most populous metropolitan centers of the Middle States. The bulk of the region's population, in fact, lives in metropolitan areas whose central city is not located in an organized county. The five counties that comprise the City of New York still have a sprinkling of county offices, but independently organized county governments no longer exist. The City of Philadelphia has all but absorbed the County of Philadelphia. Baltimore City has been separated from Baltimore County. There is no county government in the District of Columbia, which is operated by the federal government primarily as a city. Other standard metropolitan areas in this section fall within two or more counties. Even where the entire metropolitan region lies within a single county, the county government itself often needs overhauling and modernization. Indeed, county government has been aptly called the "dark continent of American politics."

Finally, there is a form of structural reorganization that has never passed beyond the discussion stage, the metropolitan city-state. Creating this type of government would mean detaching the metropolitan area from the state or states in which it lies and conferring on it separate statehood. Such proposals may make interesting after-dinner conversation, but they are scarcely practical. It is hardly conceivable, for example, that the states of New Jersey, New York, and Connecticut would consent to the loss of taxable resources involved in the separation of the twenty-two counties that comprise the New York metropolitan area from the states in which they are now situated.

There is no such thing as a single, universal formula that can solve the problems of all cities and their suburbs. Each metropolitan area has characteristics all its own,

and the most appropriate solution to its problems will depend on the political, economic, geographical, and cultural setting in which those problems have arisen.

A Challenge to Education

Luther Gulick, City Administrator of New York, has challenged us to "strike out boldly with new inventions in local government." That we have made little headway in this direction is hardly surprising. Most of us live in metropolitan districts, but we have yet to learn to think and act as metropolitan citizens. It is axiomatic that no government can develop strong and clear-sighted policies without the support of a well-informed citizenry. "Plans for the future development of metropolitan New

York," declared Frederic A. Delano in the foreword to *Mastering a Metropolis*, "will only be significant in civic development if they are both understood and enthusiastically endorsed by all citizens whose support is necessary to their execution." The first step in this direction is a more thorough understanding of metropolitan problems by teachers of social studies. For it will be our task to create a popular appreciation of these problems and to foster loyalty to a metropolitan-wide community. Strong popular backing will encourage our statesmen to take the hodge-podge of units that make up our metropolitan areas and fit them together into a whole that will create satisfactory living and working conditions for their citizens.

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Regionalism

The Role of the Social Studies Teacher In Dealing With a Current National Problem

EDWIN R. CARR, University of Colorado

THE theme of this conference is well-chosen and highly appropriate. Your program committee is to be congratulated for bringing this emphasis to a field of study which, at least in most schools of the United States, is long overdue. The social scientists discovered regionalism a number of years ago; and since the work of Howard Odum and others in the nineteen-thirties the study of regionalism has gone on apace. But studies have indicated that in the social studies programs of our schools, other than in geography, the study of regionalism has little place. And even in geography the study of regions seems more a matter of convenience and ease of handling than an attempt to develop the concepts of region. For example, we divide the United States physically in order to facilitate its study, and though the common features, or unifying physical features of the sub-divisions may be given some attention, in general this is about as far as the process goes. It is true, of course, that in most American school systems the study of geography is not carried beyond the junior high school, and often not very far *into* the junior high school. It may also be true that a deeper and fuller grasp of the significance of regions may certainly be made with young children.

In any case, in our social studies curriculums we have omitted one of the series of concentric circles which may be said to represent a succession of larger and larger communities — the local community — village, town, or city and its environs, the state, the region, the nation, and the world. The region — which socially and economically, and sometimes even politically, has much more significance than mere political subdivisions, rarely finds a place.

The fact that the area embraced by the Middle States Council for the Social Studies does not conform precisely to one of the generally accepted "regions" is perhaps not of great moment. Regions cannot be defined with precision, and regions are of different kinds. Moreover, parts of the commonly defined regions differ from other parts; each may have its unique elements of culture, its peculiar economic condition or problem, as well as those physical, cultural, social, or economic features which it enjoys or endures in common with other parts of the region. The important thing is that there is an intervening unity, generally more than a state, and less than the nation, which has elements of commonality, giving rise to common problems and calling for common solutions, which needs to be perceived, understood, and appreciated. But this entity, despite its common features, despite its need to realize itself as an entity, must not regard itself solely in this fashion. It is part of a larger whole, the nation, just as the communities which comprise the region, though they be entities in themselves, are nevertheless part of the larger state or region. To fully realize themselves and their potentialities they cannot live unto themselves alone.

There is a danger in the regional approach. The danger lies in the possibility of confusing regionalism with sectionalism. In fact, the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably — perhaps from the modern viewpoint, erroneously — though there is a difference of opinion among social scientists on this point. In general, however, "sectionalism" is thought of as divisive; it emphasizes differences and self interest; it generally puts the welfare of the section above the national interest. Sectionalism has been a

feature of the American landscape since early times; the members of the Congress of the Articles of Confederation recognized it, as did the delegates to the Constitutional Convention, as any schoolboy knows. Much of the story of the United States in the nineteenth century was a story of sectional conflict and sectional crisis, and the twentieth century has by no means been free from it. Sectionalism lives today in the log-rolling activities of Congress. We have it in the West, where, among other things, it is believed (not without some justification) that freight rates are too much under the control of eastern interests which are anxious to keep the West scenic and pristine but unindustrialized, and that eastern capital is more interested in exploitation than it is in development. You have it in the East; you often tend to regard the expenditure of federal monies for reclamation and similar purposes to be, at worst, a giant boondoggling scheme, and at best a drain upon the federal treasury to which you contribute without commensurate return. May people in the South are suspicious of the good intentions of many of the rest of us when it comes to race relations, and the feeling has been widespread in the southern states that they are held in a kind of financial bondage to the North, that despite their recent industrial strides, the South enjoys a colonial status with reference to the financial centers of the United States.

We in the upper Colorado River basin are now engaged in a campaign to secure more water, principally from the Colorado River, which rises in the state of Colorado and whose flow is apportioned among seven states by means of an interstate compact. Scarcely a week passes without at least one blast against Southern California, whose residents, it is believed, would be perfectly content for *all* of Colorado to become a dust bowl as long as it would make possible a

few thousand more housing developments around Los Angeles. California, on the other hand, see any attempt by the upper basin states to get more water as a direct threat to their phenomenal industrial and commercial development, to which at present they see no end.

This is not to say that these grievances are not real, that they have no basis in fact. They are, perhaps more often than not, perfectly legitimate; they arise out of self-interest and conflicting interest. They may — and often do — stem from a long series of historical events, or from a group of localized favorable circumstances, or from a lack of favorable circumstances, or from other sources.

These few instances could be multiplied manyfold, but it would serve no purpose. Sectionalism is very much alive; it pits one part of the country against another. Those who propose emphasis on the study of a region must make sure that they do not thereby contribute to division, that they do not enhance sectionalism, of which we have too much already.

Regionalism, on the other hand, looks to the nation first. As Howard Odum suggested some years ago, "[regionalism] . . . is essentially a cooperative concern . . . [it] connotes component and constituent parts of the larger national culture . . ." To Odum, additionally, it should be pointed out, regionalism implied a greater degree of planned societal activity; sectionalism, he believed is ". . . the group correspondent to individualism."

Modern Concept of Regionalism

Present day regionalism is concerned principally with the development and wise use of the resources of the region. The modern regionalist regards the regional concept as somewhat less of a panacea than did his earlier counterpart. He is no less concerned

with the welfare of both region and nation, but he does not regard regionalism as the solution to all of the country's problems, and he recognizes its limitations.

The goal of regionalism is to advance local and regional ends at the same time that gains are made throughout the nation, and in the course of development of projects within a region to strive for proper balance, providing a general improvement of the regional economy, not an improvement of one segment of the region at the expense of others.

A multiple-purpose agricultural project is thus judged on the basis of the degree to which it furthers a national agricultural policy, as well as on the basis of its value to the region. A plan for power development would be judged similarly, as would a scheme for expansion of transportation facilities. Within a region, a new major fabricating plant, such as a steel mill, might not necessarily bring blessings to a contiguous rural area; it might conceivably harm it, depress it economically, as farmers and farm workers race to the plant, attracted by better incomes, leaving the rural area to become a rural slum. The concern of the regionalist is with planning resource use so that advances will be made on as many fronts as possible, with keeping balance in regional development, and with regional development which fits in with national policy and welfare.

Though social scientists confess that they do not yet possess enough of the necessary techniques to pursue this attack on resource use satisfactorily, they are nevertheless carrying on on two fronts: developing and perfecting research techniques to be used in further study, and engaging in research studies with the tools available. Within this region, for example, studies have been made by the University of Maryland Bureau of Business Research, by economists such as

Walter Izard of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and by the Federal Reserve Bank of Baltimore, to mention a few which have been brought to my attention. There are undoubtedly others in the region, as there are in other parts of the country. This sort of enterprise will, I am sure, accelerate and become increasingly productive. It will be most productive of results in areas where the social climate is sympathetic.

Resource use is becoming increasingly important in America. We may soon be plagued with shortages, some of which may be serious. The population estimate of some 200 millions within a few decades, requiring at least twenty-five per cent more food than we now consume, is a case on point. The Report of the President's Materials Policy Commission, which highlighted, among other matters, our greatly accelerated use of resources in this century, and which forecast continuing and greater pressures on resources in the near future, also points to the need for a wise policy in resource management.

The Role of the Social Studies Teacher

The role of the teacher of the social studies in this picture seems to me to include the following:

1. To acquaint oneself with his region (however defined), so that he is familiar with its history, its problems, and its prospects; with its economic and social bases; and with its people and their literature, art, and music, and their traditions and aspirations. To find out what makes the region a "region," through study of its natural features, indices of homogeneity, and other available data. To study about the principal sources of income of its people and to discover whether any are increasing or decreasing in importance. To study such periodic indices as per capita income, educational expenditures, output per worker, migration,

and composition of the population, and to appreciate such significance as they may have.

2. To explore the relationships between the region and the nation on the one hand, and between the region and its component political or other subdivisions or subregions on the other (Federal administrative regions may be involved here as well.) To discover the peculiar contributions which this region makes to the national welfare, to learn whether such contributions are increasing or decreasing both absolutely and relatively, and what additional contributions could be made. To learn the interdependence of regions in the United States and how each has made its contribution to national greatness. To appreciate the ways in which the contributions of other regions, as well as my own, may be increased so that the level of living of all of our people may be raised.

Regarding the relationship of the region to its component parts one might ask such questions as these: Are there interstate compacts within the region, or to which a part of the region is a party? Are they logical? Would others be desirable and feasible? Do political boundaries interfere with the work of the region? On what bases have soil conservation districts been established? What localized culture groups exist in the region? To what degree have they been integrated into the life of the region? What are the principal economic sub-regions? Do they provide an integrated economy or is the region highly specialized? Are there logical combinations of contiguous areas which could be encouraged in order to make the areas function more effectively in the interest of the region, as well as in the interest of the inhabitants?

3. To introduce students to the concept of regionalism, raising such questions as have been indicated above, and to make sure that they do not confuse regionalism

with sectionalism. To help them see the problems facing their particular region or sub-region, and to help them explore various ways of solving the problems or at least of ameliorating difficulties. To help them appreciate the "oneness" of regions, at the same time that they appreciate the "wholeness" of the nation. To stimulate them to pride in their region, in the accomplishments of the region, and in the people who have made the accomplishments possible. To help them understand that as all regions prosper the entire nation will prosper, that as each individual is enabled to develop and utilize his talents, both within the region and within the nation, the level of well-being of all will be enhanced; that depressed areas, for whatever reason, harm not only the people who live in such areas but people generally as well.

Prerequisites to a Study of Regional Problems

There are certain prerequisites, or at least co-requisites, to the effective study of regional and regional-national problems, or of any problem, for that matter. Without these qualities in the method of instruction and in the minds of students (and teachers) studies of problems are likely to lean toward the superficial.

One of these qualities is the need to recognize that problems are solved, except occasionally by chance, through the use of intelligence, that students of problems must be openminded, willing to search for facts and to use them when they are found, and capable of withstanding the shock of discovering that pet biases and prejudices are in error. And students must be aware, too, that solutions to problems are not always popular at the time they are proposed, that solutions sometimes threaten vested interests, or call into question old, comfortable ways of doing things. They must learn that though conformity is the easy path, it is not

always or necessarily the path of rectitude.

In this connection it seems desirable to reiterate the need to encourage students to experiment, to be creative, to dissent. Certain forces in our country seem determined to force Americans into a mold, under a cloak of patriotism. They equate loyalty with conformity, Americanism with a fixed set of beliefs — generally with a particular set of beliefs to which they subscribe. Dissenters are branded as disloyal, obstacles in the path to bigger and better things, betrayers of America. Students must be helped to understand, as Henry Steele Commager so brilliantly pointed out in an essay a few years ago, that America has grown because its people were free to dissent, were free to traffic in ideas, free to create, in both tangible and intangible realms. The American school must not become a handmaiden of those groups and individuals who would force Americans into an intellectual strait-jacket. We need new and better ideas, new and better methods, now as never before. It may even be true, as Margaret Mead has suggested, "that we need to teach students how to think, when [we] don't know what method to use, about a problem which is not yet formulated."

Another quality which seems essential to any real solution of socio-economic problems is an awareness of, and wholehearted acceptance of, the fact of interdependence in our society and the consequent need for cooperation in the solution of our common problems. The fact of interdependence is rather generally accepted in a casual sort of way; individuals don't produce their own shoes, or utensils, or automobiles, nor much of anything else directly. We are dependent on others for these things; we are consequently interdependent.

The fact of interdependence in the solution of many common social and economic

problems seems not so well perceived. We are still plagued with the shades of Horatio Alger and with the remnants of Social Darwinism. Since we regard competition and individualism, — generally the rugged kind — as basic in the law of life, there seems to be a notion in the minds of many that there is something indecent about cooperation in the solution of social problems, unless it happens to be forced upon us, and then it is flying in the face of nature. This despite the increasing importance of group activity in almost every phase of American life.

The Virtues of Cooperation

Is competition basic in the law of life? In a delightful and provocative little volume, Professor Ashley Montagu, after examining the evidence on the question, came to the conclusions that "Man is born for cooperation, not for competition and conflict," that the view that competition is the law of life is "completely false." There may be those who are not willing to accept Dr. Montagu's conclusion, nor even the data upon which it is based. Whether they do or not may not be of great moment. Common sense and reason demonstrate the virtues of cooperation, and though common sense is not always dependable, it certainly seems to be so in this case.

One final matter, and I will close. Most of us in the field of the social studies have long been disturbed by widespread apathy in the face of public problems. Each election finds us swamped with appeals to "get out and vote," some of the appealers go so far as to say that "it doesn't make any difference how you vote, just so you vote," a statement which is ridiculous, despite the good intentions of those who make it. But people still don't get out and vote in very large numbers. The polls of public opinion too often show that a large portion of those who are polled are uninformed about — even un-

aware of — issues facing the country. The evidence could be multiplied.

Reason for Public Apathy

It seems to me that a basic reason for public apathy in these matters is the inability of people to identify themselves with the problems. The issues seem detached — they are there and I am here — they may affect others, but not me — seems to be the attitude of a great many people. They fail to see that their self-interest is, or may be, involved, not necessarily at the moment, perhaps, but ultimately. And so the Dixon-Yates controversy is unimportant to them. The question of federal regulation of natural gas at the well-head is academic, unrelated to their welfare. The enactment of a "right-to-work" law seems all right — after all, everybody should have the right to work. And so it goes; too many are too disinterested.

I wonder whether we shouldn't explore the possibility that a certain amount of this apathy may be our fault? Isn't it possible that, in our discussions of current national and other problems, we have permitted students to take a view that is too detached, that we have not sufficiently helped them to become aware of the fact that they are, or may be, in the middle of the problems under consideration? Isn't it possible to help them to identify themselves more closely with the issues — to help them to see that their welfare is tied up with the way a problem

is settled? I think it is.

I am not optimistic about the likelihood that each person, now or in the foreseeable future, will always act altruistically, despite our efforts to instill a more deep-seated appreciation of the brotherhood of man. But I do believe it is possible to educate people — or at least, most people — so that they will follow what has been called "enlightened self-interest," so that they will see that what is good for others will in most cases be good for them, that though they may have to make sacrifices in the short run, in the long run that whatever will improve the well-being of the group will improve their own.

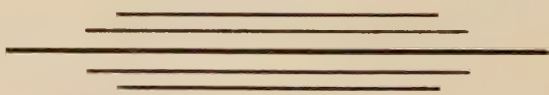
I am not at all sure that I have talked about this topic in the way that your president wanted me to. I do want to say that the questions I have raised seem to me to be the most fundamental in this business of teaching about current problems, national or otherwise. I am certain that the solution of problems can be brought about only by the use of intelligence in an atmosphere of freedom, by people working cooperatively who have a strong sense of personal identification with the issues.

Sources of direct quotations:

P. 4, from Howard Odum, *American Regionalism*

P. 8, from Margaret Mead, *The School in American Culture*

P. 8, from M. F. Ashley Montagu, *On Being Human*



Steel-Making

Its Impact on the Delaware Valley

JOHN J. APPLEYARD, U. S. Steel Corp.

DRIVING through the beautiful farm land of the Pennsylvania Dutch country enroute to this meeting, it was difficult to keep in mind that, essentially, the Middle Atlantic States represent one of the greatest industrial areas of our country. More specifically, however, I come here from the vibrant Delaware Valley, and wherever we go within a radius of hundreds of miles from this concentration of industrial might, we are reminded of the interdependency of the several regions which are a part of, or surround what has in recent years been called Delaware Valley, U. S. A.

I am perhaps more aware than most people of what this term means, because I live in the heart of Delaware Valley, U. S. A., and many people have associated a recent renaissance of the area's industrial community with the comparatively new Fairless Works of United States Steel. Actually, the arrival of a great new basic steel plant on the banks of the Delaware is the result, rather than the cause, of an industrial upsurge in the Delaware Valley; but it is to be admitted that its arrival has had a far-reaching effect upon a pattern now developing. Steel, you know, is basic to America's industrial economy; and new steel making capacity is bound to have an impact upon the areas where it is situated. The Delaware Valley is no exception.

There were several aspects of steel's arrival in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, a few miles above Philadelphia on the Delaware River, which were somewhat unusual. In the first place, this great new steel plant, patently the most modern fully integrated steel mill in the world, and the largest facility of its kind ever built at one time, was situated in a part of the Commonwealth which had a recent reputation as a rural or agricultural community.

The fact of the matter is that our particular area in Bucks County has a long and distinguished history as one of the pioneer homes of American industry. There were slitting and rod mills and iron furnaces there in Colonial times. One of the most important cities in the past and present of the nation's steel industry is just across the river in Trenton, New Jersey. But, for our purposes today, Bucks County had become, through a combination of circumstances we haven't time to explore, largely a rural community of small towns and attractive and productive farms.

Then, in 1951, United States Steel began construction of the Fairless Works on 3,900 acres in the big Bend of the Delaware River. A little more than a year and a half, and 30,000,000 man-hours of labor later, this plant went into production. After a year of operation, its rated capacity was increased from 1,800,000 ingot tons of steel to 2,200,000 tons, merely on the basis of performance. Six thousand people were employed, many of whom were brought into the area as new residents, but the majority of whom had roots in the area but entered new careers in a type of industrial environment they had never known before.

The impact of a new steel mill on such a community is, naturally, tremendous. Circumstances surrounding the construction of the Fairless Works were such that it was a showcase of engineering skill even before it went into production, and put the Morrisville and lower Bucks County area into the national spotlight. It moved fast, by necessity because of national defense requirements at the time the project was started, so there was little time for community planning of a type that is desirable in cases of extensive industrial development. Many problems were

created, inadvertently in most cases, temporary in most cases; yet problems that were a challenge to the community.

It is to the credit of the people of Bucks County and its several communities in the area adjacent to Fairless Works that the problems were met—not without some temporary dislocations, to be sure—but through cooperative, visionary efforts of the community leaders and appropriate agencies. Not the least of the problems which arose immediately upon the arrival of the steel project was housing. And, of course, this posed a real problem with respect to schools.

Building New Towns

The housing industry was going great guns as a normal thing in this rapidly expanding area. The area was attractive to many people, and housing generally was active. The arrival of steel brought a new demand, over and above the norm. What happened then is a bit of history in itself. The Danherst Corporation, frankly at the suggestion of United States Steel, bought a townsite and started the planning and building of a complete town in Falls Township. It later became known as Fairless Hills. But at the same time, the nation's largest builder, William J. Levitt, was attracted to the area, and started another town to bear his name—Levittown, Pa.—to have a total of 16,000 homes. All in all, within an area of a relatively few square miles, over 25,000 new individual housing units were developed and occupied within the space of three or four years. And that many homes means a substantially increased school population.

Meeting the School Problem

Special attention to school problems was required. In Falls Township and the areas immediately adjacent to the steel plant, the problem was met squarely by the Pennsbury School District. Needless to say, taxes paid by the steel plant helped the school district

to meet its problem, in the planning and erection of new schools and expansion of existing schools. I think it is fair to say that, even before the arrival of steel, schools in the Pennsbury district were inadequate; in fact, some were on double schedules. However, the district began a program which, even now, is continuing and keeping abreast of the problem.

In the Levittown area, only part of which is in the school district of Falls Township, the problem was more acute, since population development was larger and faster due to Mr. Levitt's mass building and highly successful merchandising techniques. However, with the cooperation of the developer and the school districts involved, this area's school problem is well on its way to being solved.

The arrival of basic steel has had more far-reaching effects than those which touched lower Bucks County. Basic steel was a shot in the arm to an already awakening industrial economy, with the result that the entire Philadelphia-Delaware Valley area on both sides of the river is seeing expansion of retail, service and manufacturing facilities, increases in payrolls, and relative improvements in all phases of its community life. It is a vibrant community, an area with a tremendously promising future of new capital investments, new job opportunities, new payrolls—and new problems, of an area-wide and local character. Planning is a watchword in the Delaware Valley, far more so than ever before. And the plans are bigger as the ultimate possibilities of the future are envisioned by the leaders of public opinion in this vast industrial community.

So much for the backdrop, for the circumstances which put Delaware Valley, U. S. A. into the national spotlight. So much for some very special conditions which posed community problems that are so closely identified with the schools.

Now, most of the problems of the type that can develop or be expected to grow out of this kind of industrial expansion are physical or administrative problems insofar as school systems are concerned. They have financial overtones; and unfortunately, they sometimes have political undertones.

What we are concerned with here today is their significance to social studies teaching. And therein lies, I think, one of the greatest challenges to education ever put down in these times.

What is happening today is prologue, important as it may be. Certainly all of us are concerned with this wholesome development of our social and economic community during a period of rapid expansion. But, while we will chart the course to be followed for the next few years and can point the way for the future, the ultimate development of our social and economic future will be the work and the responsibility of the young men and women who are in our schools today.

Interdependence of Industry and Education

This is the one basic fact, above all others, that establishes forevermore the fundamental assumption of the interdependence of business, industry and education. It is neither intricate nor especially complex. Taken literally, it means that the future of free enterprise and free education are indissolubly linked to our common efforts to defeat the sinister purposes of those who would abolish the precepts upon which we have founded our way of life.

One of the greatest strengths of communistic Russia has been that its young people have been deeply schooled in communism. Can we do any less in this cold war between diametrically opposed doctrines than give our young people the opportunity to obtain a thorough understanding and appreciation of the free enterprise system

and its relationship to a successfully working democracy? Can we afford by default or indifference to neglect any phase or measure of their education in those political, social and economic principles that have created human liberty as we know it and made this country what it is?

Speaking of free enterprise, I read the other day of a school teacher who was telling one of his colleagues about an industry-education conference he had attended. When he was asked what the industrialists had discussed, he said, "Free enterprise, and it was pretty dull." Ladies and gentlemen, I submit that while there may be some aspects of the subject that have been overworked in attempts to justify some things that are in no way related to the integrity of the system, free enterprise was never so important as it is at this moment. It is a great bastion of strength in that diminishing part of the world that still enjoys human liberty. And the day that free enterprise becomes dull to any of us and especially to those who teach our youth, is the day that freedom itself will be lost.

Business and industry depend heavily upon the school systems to equip our young people to take their places in the shops, factories, offices and laboratories. It is the products of our educational facilities of today who will become candidates for responsible positions in production and management tomorrow — ultimately becoming the trustees of our industrial plant and our capitalistic system. Since it is true that more and more jobs in business and industry are becoming highly skilled, it is only natural that management has a very real interest in the constant improvement of the aptitudes of the school product, as well as the methods by which these aptitudes are developed. More than that, since it has been demonstrated that our ability to produce is directly related to the ambitions, imaginations and

inventiveness of those coming into the ranks of industry, we are concerned more and more with the ability of young people to think for themselves. This interest is emphasized by the fact that approximately 80 per cent of American high school graduates terminate their formal education when they leave high school and seek employment in business, in manufacturing, or in the services industries. Parenthetically, it is also of considerable interest to us that sales of consumer goods are actually higher in areas where the average general education levels are the highest, an economically significant fact recently revealed in a study by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

There are some of the bonds which link business, industry and education, and indicate the course of social studies in our school systems. I would say that the greatest responsibility of social science teachers today is to develop within our young people an understanding and appreciation of the free competitive system, our economic arithmetic, what it is, what it has done, what it means to the basic freedoms of America and the opportunities it creates.

Industry as an Educational Resource

Business and industry, through education or public relations departments, are eager to help educators in the development of material for the teaching of this vital subject. Many individual companies and business and industrial organizations have already produced a wealth of classroom tested teaching aids which are made available without charge for use in the schools. My own company is particularly proud of its educational materials on the steel industry which have been widely distributed throughout

the country, and have been accepted for broad use in social science classes.

Modern teaching recognizes the value of industry-sponsored and produced teaching aids. Modern methods of instruction are placing important emphasis on classroom projects identified with local business, industrial, financial and social institutions. You are interested in the company's role in community economics — how the company works with its employees — how it works with the community — its methods of health and safety maintenance — and the relation of inventions and new developments to social progress. For example, I know from my own experience in the region of our new Fairless Works, that geography teachers are finding it useful to study raw materials used in our manufacturing processes and where they come from, where the finished products go, and what comes back in trade. They are interested in knowing the factors which contributed to the decision to locate the Fairless Works where it is, and what other regions are competitive. Knowledge of what makes production work is needed for student understanding of the community scene, and just as importantly, it contributes to an appreciation of our enterprise system.

As a representative of industry, let me assure you that management of our great business, industrial and financial concerns are deeply interested in what social science teachers are doing, and have a very sincere desire to be helpful. We are interested in the development of understanding that will assure the perpetuation of free enterprise in America, an ever expanding economy and better way of life, security and progress for free competition and free education.

The Pennsylvania Germans

A Study in Stability

ARTHUR D. GRAEFF, Overbrook High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Who Are The Pennsylvania Germans?

Perhaps you have met the group of Americans we read about in the pages of current journals under the popular designation "the Pennsylvania Dutch." School textbooks may have called them **Palatines**. Perchance you have heard them classified as the "Plain People" or in a more restricted sense as the Amish, Dunkards or Mennonites. It is possible that you may have heard the terms Moravian, Schwenkfelder, French Huguenots or the deprecating term "Dumb Dutch" applied to the descendants of continental Europeans whose forbears came to the interior counties of Pennsylvania long before there were any blueprints for the trackless reaches of William Penn's Woods.

None of the aforementioned terms is fully correct or wholly wrong. The term "Dutch" was applied to them during colonial times by such eminent persons as Benjamin Franklin. The word *Deutsch* originally meant "the folk" of the Rhine area. When an immigrant to Pennsylvania explained his own origin to English Quakers he naturally said "ich bin Deutsch," a phrase which English-speaking persons promptly interpreted "I am Dutch." No effort was made to distinguish between the word Dutch as applied to the Netherlands and the word *Deutsch* as applied to Germans of the Rhine area.

The use of the names of religious sects such as Amish, Moravians and others to characterize a whole people of diverse religious loyalties, commits the

error of substituting a small part for the whole. The term "Plain Sects" encompasses several religious groups under one designation, but ignores the 90 to 95 percent of the group which are not members of these sects.

The term Palatines comes nearer to correct usage, but again is too restricted in its meaning. The Palatinate was merely one of the many parts of Europe from which these people came. Moravians from Saxony, Schwenkfelders from Silesia, Huguenots exiled from French Alsace, Mennonites from Swiss cantons, and Dutchmen from Friesland were not Palatines and they must be counted as parts of this ethnic group in Pennsylvania.

We must still consider the validity of the term we ourselves have used in designating these people. For nearly a century scholars have shown a distinct preference for the term Pennsylvania Germans. Serious publications with very few exceptions use this term. We have the Pennsylvania German Society, the pre-Revolutionary German Society of Pennsylvania; and the younger groups, the Pennsylvania German Folklore Society and the Institute for Pennsylvania German Studies. There is no Pennsylvania Dutch Society, nor has any effort been made to found one by that name. Certainly the one common denominator into which all of these divergent groups can be resolved is the German language. The word has no political significance, for there was no Germany when the progenitors of these people left their homelands. Most of them left the German-

speaking states of Europe a generation before the German-speaking George of Hanover came to England to become the founder of the present dynasty of English kings. Only the most ignorant or blinded American would entertain the notion for one moment that the Pennsylvania Germans had any preference for the political Germany of Hitler, representing as it did, the crystallization of all the horrors from which their ancestors fled two and a half centuries ago.

Yes, we have used the term Pennsylvania German, but we are not quite satisfied. It too falls short of providing an all-embracing designation. Among the groups we are studying there are many who no longer speak the dialect or know their origins. Intermarriage, anglicization of names, the fusion of cultures and the dispersal of families, all have helped to erase many of the identifications by which they may be distinguished from their fellow Americans.

We have chosen the term Pennsylvania German, not because it is wholly correct but for want of a better one.

Their Origin

The first group of Germans emigrated from Europe in 1683, one year after William Penn founded his colony in the New World. Under the leadership of Francis Daniel Pastorius a group of German and Dutch Mennonites arrived at Philadelphia on board the ship "Concord," October 6, 1683. The section of Philadelphia which now forms Germantown was purchased from William Penn's agents in Holland before the "Concord" set out on its long journey. Until the lands could be cleared and houses built

the newcomers lived in caves along the Delaware river and in hastily improvised shelters.

Many of these settlers were weavers by trade. Within a few years after their settlement in Germantown they established a flourishing trade in textile weaving. Horticulture was unknown in England before 1688, when William of Orange came to the throne of England and brought with him some fellow Hollanders to introduce gardening into Great Britain. Therefore the early English settlers in America knew little or nothing of horticulture until the German settlers began to supply the young city of Philadelphia with produce from the gardens that surrounded their homes.

In 1690 William Rittenhouse built the first successful paper mill in the American colonies on a branch of the Wissahickon Creek in Germantown. In 1688 the German and Dutch settlers joined in the first formal protest against Negro slavery when Pastorius and three brothers named Op-den-Graeff presented a petition on this subject to the yearly Meeting of the Quakers. This protest was 175 years earlier than the Emancipation Proclamation.

The small group of German settlers who came in the "Concord" were the vanguard of a great host of immigrants from war-ridden and bigotry-blighted Europe. William Penn's invitation to the New World brought a new ray of hope to the hapless victims of religious persecutions and economic disasters which had been visited upon the people of the Rhine area for almost a century. Like an index finger the Rhine pointed northward to Rotterdam, the port from which ships sailed to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. From the Neckar Valley, Heidelberg, and

the Saarpfalz they came, abandoning their desolate homes, their faces aglow with courage that springs from anticipation of better things to come. From the Swiss cantons, bearded men, stern patriarchs who had suffered indescribable tortures because of their religious beliefs, set out for Pennsylvania. They brought with them their women-folk who wore then as they do now, the little white prayer-cap as their badge of faith.

From Brunswick, Alsace and Lorraine came the rugged individualists, Huguenots who had been evicted from France as a result of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685. They had found temporary sanctuary in the German states until the ugly hand of intolerance had reached with bloody fingers into the Rhineland. Now they had heard William Penn beckon them to Pennsylvania. For had not Penn "eyed the Lord" and found in his glance approval of the "Holy Experiment" in religious freedom?

From Wuerttemberg and Bavaria, from the Hesses, Anspach and Bayreuth they came. From Silesia, the fertile western rim of Austria, came disciples of Caspar Schwenkfeld; from Herrnhut, Saxony and Moravia came those who had been touched by the ashes of the martyred John Huss, the Unitas Fratrum or Moravian Brothers.

Where They Settled

At first the stream of German immigrants was only a trickle, but by 1727 the newcomers were arriving in such great numbers that the English colonists in Pennsylvania were disturbed to see the steady flow of non-English settlers pouring through the port of Philadelphia. In order to hold this movement in check the provincial assembly passed

a law in 1727 requiring that all "Palatines" be required to take an Oath of Allegiance to the British Crown.

History provides many paradoxes. The law of 1727 is one of them, for the very act which was designed to single out one group of immigrants for special attention conferred a great boon upon the descendants of these immigrants because we today have complete lists of the German immigrants after 1727, a source of genealogical information not available to any other American colonial group.

Other efforts were made to prevent Pennsylvania from becoming a German colony. English ship masters routed their passengers to other colonies, to New York and to St. Mary's in Maryland; but as soon as the German immigrants landed they asked how to get to Pennsylvania and they did not rest until they trudged northward from the Chesapeake into York and Adams Counties, Pennsylvania, or cut across New Jersey from New York to find new homes in Bucks and Northampton Counties along the Delaware River.

Their settlement in Berks, Lebanon, Schuylkill and Dauphin began when large groups of Palatine families journeyed from the Schoharie Valley in New York Province in answer to an invitation from Pennsylvania. These groups had been transported to America under the auspices of the British Board of Trade, in order that they might engage in the manufacture of naval stores along the Hudson River. When this venture failed thousands of these people were forced to shift for themselves. In 1723 their leaders found their Canaan in the fertile valleys of Swatara and Tulpehocken, then deep in Penn's Woods.

Their Number

For a period extending from 1740 to the outbreak of the European Seven Years' War in 1756, the influx of Germans into Pennsylvania assumed the proportions of a mass migration. More than thirty thousand male adults took the Oath of Allegiance. In 1751 sixteen vessels brought 4,134 persons to the port of Philadelphia; in the peak year of 1749 there were more than six thousand arrivals.

The most reliable estimate of the population of Pennsylvania at the time of the beginning of the War of Independence, 1776, is 225,000. Of these it is estimated that 110,000, or nearly one half were Germans or of German parentage. This fact as it stands alone may not be very impressive, but when we bear in mind that the combined population of Georgia, South Carolina, New Hampshire and Rhode Island did not approach 110,000 in 1776, we can appreciate more fully the tremendous importance of this racial stock in the annals of colonial America.

Who Are Pennsylvania Germans Today?

Only those persons whose ancestors came to America before there was a political entity known as Germany are Pennsylvania Germans in one sense of the term. They were Palatines, Swiss, Alsatians, Wuertembergers and others, among whom there were many cultural ties, but none political. Yes, there were Hessians among them. A few of the mercenary soldiers hired by the British to fight against the American colonies lingered in America after their war ser-

vice was ended. As prisoners of war these Hessians were quartered in the German communities of Reading, Lancaster and York, Pennsylvania, and in the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia. Some of them married and settled in these communities rather than return to the feudal masters in the Old World. Their descendants are indistinguishable from the mass of their fellow countrymen.

We have considered the technical definition of Pennsylvania Germans as prescribed for genealogical and historical purposes. In a popular sense the term must be given much broader meaning. There are today many persons thoroughly imbued with Pennsylvania German culture whose surnames are Irish, Scotch, English, French, Jewish, and others. When the canals were built through the interior German counties of Pennsylvania, Irish immigrants were employed as laborers. Many of them absorbed the German language, married "schoene kleine Maedchen" and became themselves, Pennsylvania Germans. We know of an Italian immigrant who has been in Berks County for more than thirty years and has not yet learned to speak English. The Pennsylvania dialect was sufficient for his conversational needs. We have toiled in the harvest fields with negroes who talked "Dutch" to us and among themselves. Jews have found the Pennsylvania German dialect so much like their own Yiddish that they have become Pennsylvania Dutchmen in manner of speech, at least.

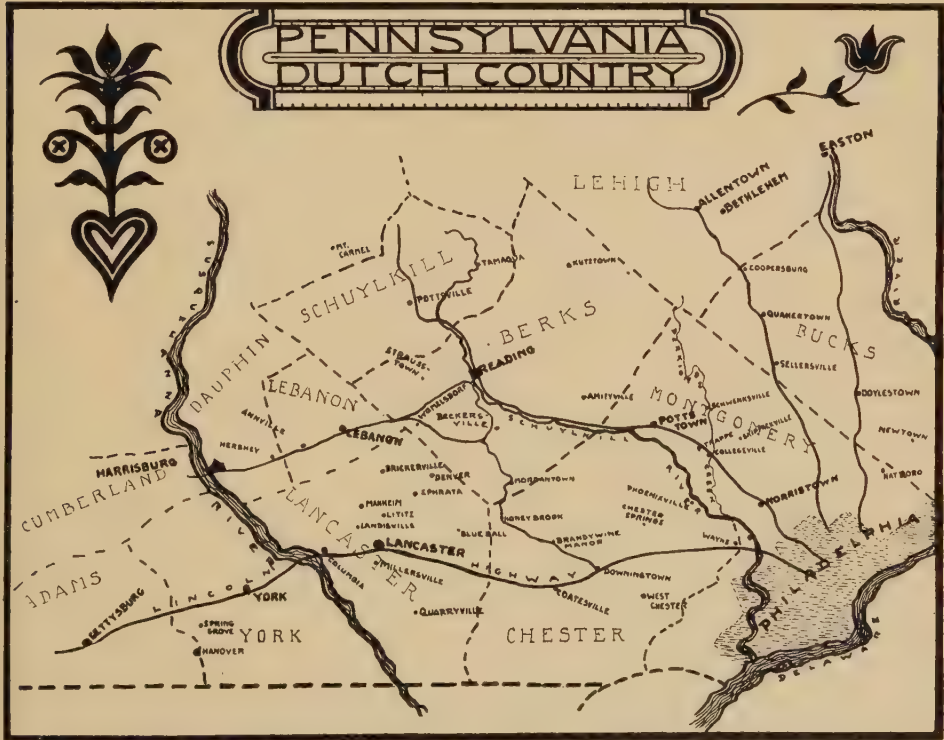
Therefore we venture to define the term Pennsylvania German here as any person who has absorbed the finer elements of Pennsylvanisch culture and has learned to appreciate its worth.

Their Contributions

Certainly there must be something inherent in the culture of the Pennsylvania Germans to account for its tenacity through centuries which have tolled since the prow of the "Concord" bobbed against the banks of the Delaware River in 1683. Into the language islands which they have established in Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, New York, Ontario and Virginia, they have carried their knowledge of arts and crafts, their devotion to education, their deep piety, their intense patriotism, their agriculture and their dialect. On their language continent in southeastern Pennsylvania they have converted the Caanan which they found into a Shangri-la, a depository for the treasures of their hymns of devotion so carefully housed in Bethlehem; a granary to feed millions who live in the language

sea which surrounds them; cathedrals towering over valleys with spires which point like God's finger, heavenward; seats of learning renowned everywhere on earth; and arts and crafts which serve to embroider life and make living wholesome.

These things they have done as Americans! For them America has been the only land of their interest for centuries. Upheavals in the various states of Europe have never set off fires of divided loyalties among these people. When they came here they erased the hyphen and set themselves to the single purpose of living and doing as in their souls they had yearned to live and do under tyrants. For here the human spirit was dignified, here the latent and suppressed forces of the human soul could, under freedom and democracy, plan, strive and achieve.



The Empty Areas of the Northeastern United States

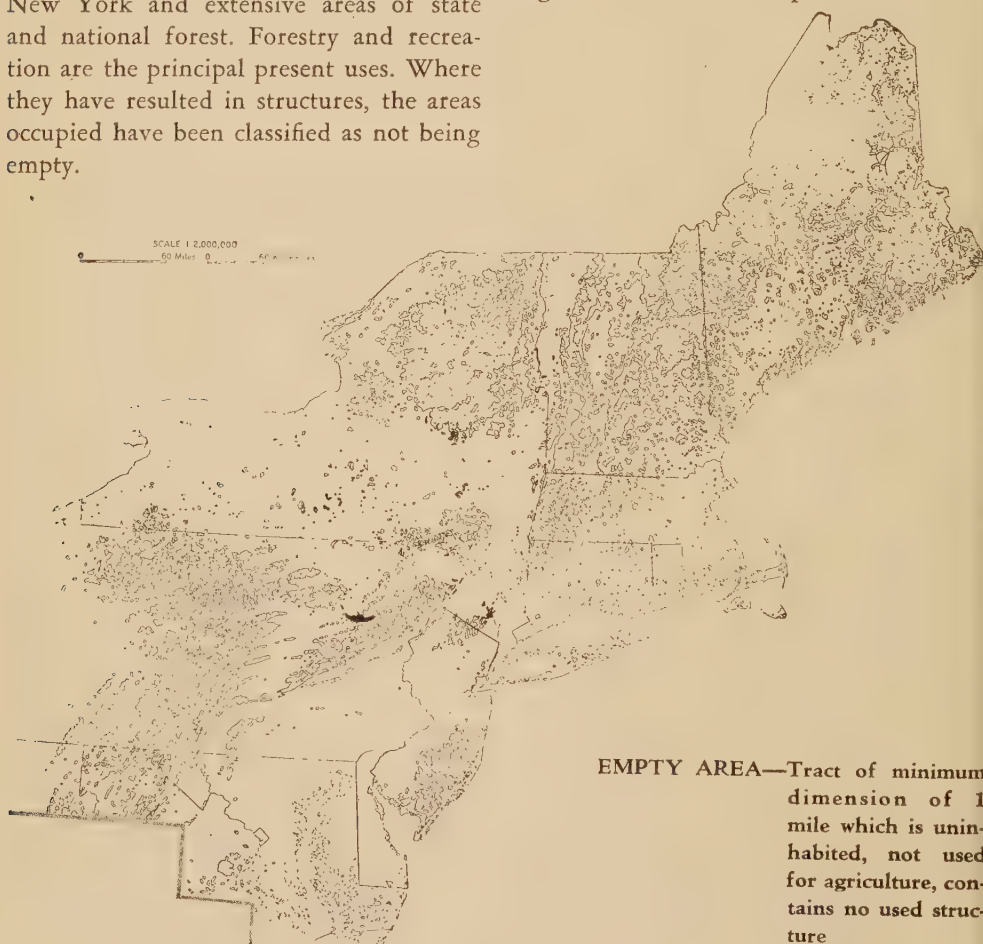
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When an expanding people with an active industrial and commercial culture have used an area for two or three centuries, it should be of interest to see what parts they have passed by or tried and abandoned.

These empty areas are not used for farming, no one lives in them, they contain virtually no recreational or commercial structures. Most of the surface is in woods or brush, ranging from "barrens," burnt-over land, or bog to large tracts of managed commercial forest in Maine, New Hampshire, and New York and extensive areas of state and national forest. Forestry and recreation are the principal present uses. Where they have resulted in structures, the areas occupied have been classified as not being empty.

An "empty area" is defined as one (1) containing no used structures (dwellings, factories, mine buildings, oil wells, hunting lodges, recreational buildings, and so on); (2) containing no land used for agriculture (including even the roughest pasture) or for industry; and (3) having a minimum dimension of at least one mile but not approaching a used structure nearer than a quarter of a mile.

How do the presence and size of empty areas affect generalizations about the northeastern United States? This region has some 30 per cent of the



nation's population; the average density per square mile is 244. In the middle states (Massachusetts through the District of Columbia) the density averages 326 per square mile. Within the United States this is a dense population: even in Europe it is comparable to 200 for France, 260 for Denmark, and 400 for Italy. Yet within this "highly developed," "urbanized," "commercial," "intensively industrialized" region there are large empty areas.

Generalizations about the distribution of phenomena are usually made through the process of regionalization. The concept of "region" has been variously defined, but the definition usually involves delimiting areas within which there is some degree of homogeneity or unity with respect to one criterion or an association of criteria. It would seem that the presence of empty areas, if it is to affect regionalization at all, should be most significant in regionalizing about people and their activities.

In such "human use regions," then, how do empty areas affect the concept of homogeneity? The nature of the problem can be illustrated by stating two opposite approaches to it. First, people and their activities are the major interest: homogeneity applies to what people do in the region, even if they do it dispersed over a wide area with empty spaces between units. Or, second, geography is popularly defined as "areal differentiation": even if people's activities are to be the dominant interest, the "homogeneity" of a region in which there are substantial areas with no people and none of the activities being studied will be dubious.

The presence, size, and distribution of empty areas would seem to be especially significant in any attempt at regionalization that is designed to establish "com-

posite," or "social," or "economic" regions, or to give the "flavor" or "personality" of an area. Examples would be "The South," "The West," "Maine," "Cape Cod," all of which are geographical or political areas in their simplest sense, but all of whose names may have connotations of character and personality. The presence of small, scattered empty areas, for example, implies a wooded landscape (at least in the Northeast), game, fish, berries, recreation, distance between groups of people—all of which contribute to the personality of a region, even if they are concealed by the usual statistical analysis.

Relations to Cause

The distribution of empty areas will, in general, not surprise anyone who is familiar with the northeastern United States. It is safe to go further and say that geomorphologists, even structural geologists, may be pleased to see so much evidence of accordance with the classic regionalization of this part of the country in their fields. In Pennsylvania, Maryland, and northern New Jersey the empty areas conform dramatically to Appalachian structure. The Catskills, Tug Hill, the Adirondacks, the Green Mountains and the White, the Berkshires and the Taconics, can all be distinguished, and terminal moraine is identifiable in southeastern Massachusetts and Long Island. In the New Jersey Pine Barrens the too well drained sands and gravels of the Beacon Hill formation, which remained above water during the Pensauken submersion of the remainder of the nearby Coastal Plain, are apparent. In other parts of the Coastal Plain, especially on the coast and bay margins, large marshes are reflected by empty areas. In northern Pennsylvania, New York, and New England the large empty areas have, in addi-

tion, short growing seasons, because of altitude, or latitude, or both.

With regard to the empty areas of the Northeast as a whole, it is safe to say that perhaps 85 per cent of their surface is characterized by steep slope or poor drainage or poor soil, and perhaps 60 per cent also has some climatic handicap. That this is so, should surprise no one. Man is a pretty rational creature and has a strong tendency to choose the easier way and the better land if there is choice.

The cultural factors influencing the distribution of empty areas are almost fantastically complex. This is bound to be so, because the very concept is negative and relates to three centuries of history. Some areas, as in western Massachusetts and southern Vermont, are now empty because people tried them and found them unsatisfactory as compared with alternative areas. Others, as in north-central Pennsylvania and the Adirondacks, are empty because, when settlement got to them, people already "knew better," that is, knew there was better and easier land elsewhere. Large parts of both types will probably remain empty, because society has concluded they are fit for no more intensive use than forestry and recreation and has set them aside as state or national parks.

It is obvious that unsuitability for agriculture does not always put territory in the empty-area class and that there are many uses of land for which location overweighs great terrain handicaps.

For some uses, terrain or climatic features that hamper agriculture are advantageous. This is true of resort and recreational developments. Near urban centers rugged terrain may even be considered superior for high-class residential and institutional use. This is one of the major

reasons for the small amount of empty area in the Highlands of the Hudson and obscures the fact that the leftover land is empty for the same part cause (steep slope) that encourages use of the occupied land.

The large empty areas in southern New Jersey are a special case. They are not rugged, and over large tracts they are well drained. But the soil in many of these so-called "Pine Barrens" is too sandy or gravelly to encourage field agriculture in competition with better soil in apparent abundance nearby, and the agriculture is largely poultry raising or, in a few favored places, specialized cranberry or blueberry culture. Since there are no agricultural advantages, the potentials would seem to lie in the direction of commercial, industrial, or recreational uses. Apparently, however, in spite of the nearness of large urban populations and excellent transportation, all of the land for which there is a demand is being used, and this extensive area, or at least the well-drained parts of it, is simply "leftover."

This part of New Jersey also suffers a sort of isolation. It is increasingly "peninsular" southward and eastward, and Cape May is relatively "remote." The lines of through traffic flow to the west and cross the Delaware before it widens into the bay.

In contrast with the large empty areas in New Jersey, the small and scattered ones in the Delmarva Peninsula (between Delaware and Chesapeake Bays), with only one small exception, are only marsh or swamp. However, the soil is probably better, and the narrowing of the Delmarva Peninsula toward the south adds shore industries to the agriculture. There is also an added advantage: the

Delmarva Peninsula is not a cul-de-sac. Its linear roads and railroad go somewhere, and it is possible to get off its southern tip (or near it) and go on to the mainland.

Isolation as a part cause of emptiness may be considered in three aspects. In the first and most important sense, isolation means distance from the centers of economic activity. In this sense the northern parts of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York are "isolated" from the centers of population and economic activity centering well south of a line Boston-Albany-Buffalo. But it seems impossible to point to strong and obvious evidence of the power of this factor. The remotest corner of Maine, Aroostook County, is by no means all empty and is a surprise to the traveler along U.S. 1 who has watched the north woods close in on him for nearly a hundred miles between Calais and Houlton. And although New Hampshire would seem a nice example of increasing isolation northward, Vermont is turned upside down and is more economically active, and has greater population, in the northern half. In the St. Lawrence Valley of New York empty areas are few, though markets are distant and the empty Adirondacks lie as a great sterile area to the south. Nevertheless, isolation certainly affects the kind of agriculture that is profitable and is a large cost factor in the marketing of milk and potatoes from these remote areas.

The major influence of the distance factor would seem to bear on industrial and commercial activities. It is probably safe to say that some of the remoter empty areas which are not rough and poorly drained would be occupied for commercial, industrial, residential, or recreational purposes if they were nearer to

New York, Philadelphia, or Pittsburgh. However, the large amount of flat, well-drained land still empty in the Pine Barrens of New Jersey would seem to indicate that there are decided qualifications to this conclusion.

There is isolation of another kind—remoteness, not from the centers of activity, but from the historical routes of most intensive circulation between them.

It has already been pointed out that this is a probable part cause of the lack of nonagricultural use of the New Jersey Pine Barrens, and it is probably contributory in the other areas mentioned. The scarcity of empty areas along the Mohawk Valley would seem to be related to the railroad, but empty areas to the south are disposed largely with relation to the trend of Appalachian structure, almost at right angles to the routes of traffic.

Empty areas and isolation may be considered in still a third sense: the degree to which emptiness is related to lack of local routes. In particular, many empty areas are the leftover country between roads. This is most likely to be true of otherwise well-settled country and of small or isolated empty areas. Certainly almost everyone in the Northeast lives on or close to a road, and the track of a road is less likely to be empty. But the road acts on development as only a part cause, and a lot of territory with excellent road connections is empty. For example, the Pine Barrens of New Jersey are especially well served with roads and railroads connecting the shore resorts with the New York and Philadelphia urban areas. U.S. Routes 30, 40, and 322 carry almost bumper-to-bumper traffic on week ends through long stretches of wilderness and past signs warning of

deer crossing and appealing to the motorist not to run over game. New Jersey Route 72 from Four Mile to Manahawkin probably runs through more empty area and more spectacular "barrens" than any of the other "shore" roads.

The Problem Element

All over the Northeast, so many empty areas are so well served by local roads that it must be concluded that, if roads are lacking in empty areas, the lack is not the principal cause of the emptiness, but largely a result of it.

What to do about empty areas in the Northeast is not a primary concern of this study, but a few brief observations may be made. Presumably most of the possibilities fall within two categories: (1) attempt to fill them in with population, or with industrial uses; (2) set them aside, perhaps even enlarge them, and zone them for forest, watershed protection, recreational use, and so on.

Programs looking toward filling these empty areas would assume that there is need for land in the Northeast. So far as agricultural uses are concerned, the historical trend has been in the opposite direction. Land in farms decreased by 26 million acres between 1880 and 1950, and cropland showed a general downward trend. The fact that during the years of World War II the Northeast expanded its land in farms and cropland harvested, then by 1949 has resumed the decrease in both, shows that there is potential farmland to spare, and even usable cropland that could be developed in times of intense agricultural demand and high prices without trespassing on the empty areas. In general, the better lands have long been exploited, but there is still much land in empty areas that is good, physically, as some agricultural land nearby was when it was cleared. But

two or three centuries of use has removed stones and improved soil to the point where the long-used land is now better than the nearby unused land. To clear and improve empty areas at present labor costs and in competition with used land as good or better seems economically unfeasible.

Recreational land use in this "urbanized" part of the country will probably expand, especially if population and standard of living keep on rising. Such use, if it results in structures and formal recreational facilities, will probably be the most effective force in filling up parts of empty areas.

In the Middle Atlantic States an active program of state acquisition of unused lands has been pursued for years. The Pennsylvania Game Commission, for instance, now owns 897,864 acres, which it has purchased with hunting and fishing license funds. The land is managed to encourage the increase of game, and most of it is open for public hunting in season. The greater part is included in Pennsylvania empty areas.

Presumably most of the land now in empty areas is better suited to growth of forest than to any other use, though a large amount is not very good even for that. Increased use for this purpose will not fill in empty areas but will instead perpetuate them, as it probably should.

With a few outstanding exceptions, any large-scale dispersal of industry into the empty areas of the Northeast seems unlikely. In general, they have steep slopes or poor drainage, and construction costs would be high, especially when relatively flat land with low intensity of use is available nearby. Further, the mere

existence of an empty area, if of any size, denotes lack of population, and therefore of labor. The large empty areas apparently best suited to industrial dispersal are the Pine Barrens of New Jersey and similar scrub-clad "plains" in southern Maine. It must be remembered that the size definition of an empty area (a mile in least dimension) leaves out extensive tracts of low-use country within the occupied areas that might well be used for industrial and residential expansion before there is much need to call upon even the better-suited empty areas.

The broad, general classes of empty

areas have been indicated. To carry classification much further would necessitate analysis of individual empty areas, and, although that might be profitable locally, it is beyond the scope of this paper. Extensive field experience has led this observer to the conclusion that many details of the present landscape represent the "frozen history" of decisions—once with some rational explanation but now incomprehensible—by people long since dead. Faced with such a conclusion, the geographer can at least point to his map and his description and say, "Here is where they are and what they are like!" and hope that that knowledge may, in itself, prove useful.

This article is adapted from an article of the same title which appeared in *The Geographical Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 3, 1954. Reprinted with permission of the American Geographical Society.



**MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
FIFTY-SECOND ANNUAL SPRING MEETING
LANCASTER, PA.**

MAY 6, 7, 1955

Theme: "Social and Economic Patterns of the Middle Atlantic States."

PROGRAM PARTICIPANTS

MAY 6—GENERAL SESSION

Chairman: James A. Kehew, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania; President, Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies.

Address: "The Pennsylvania Germans: A Study in Stability," Arthur D. Graeff, Head, Department of Social Studies, Overbrook High School, Philadelphia.

DINNER SESSION

Chairman: Ralph W. Cordier, Dean of Instruction, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania; First Vice President, Middle States Council for the Social Studies.

Address: "The Middle Atlantic States in American History," D. G. Brinton Thompson, Professor of History, Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut.

Address: "The Middle Atlantic States Today," Lester E. Klimm, Professor of Geography, University of Pennsylvania.

MAY 7—GENERAL SESSION: PANEL AND DISCUSSION

Topic: "Present-Day Problems in the Middle Atlantic States, and their Significance to Social Studies Teaching."

Chairman: William H. Hartley, Teachers College, Towson, Maryland, Second Vice President, Middle States Council for the Social Studies.

Panel: John J. Appleyard, Director of Public Relations, Philadelphia District, United States Steel Corporation; Charles A. Shapp, Principal, Junior High School 52, New York; Edmund N. Bacon, Executive Director, City Planning Commission, Philadelphia, Pa.; Muriel N. Hoover, Western High School, Washington, D. C.; Robert V. Duffey, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.; Helen McCracken Carpenter, State Teachers College, Trenton, New Jersey.

DISCUSSION GROUPS

Section A. Economic Problems, with Particular Reference to Industrial Development.

Chairman: Clyde B. Cochran, Hine Junior High School, Washington, D. C.

Discussants: Russell N. Bonney, Wilmington High School, Wilmington, Del.; Ruth T. Grunnagle, Westinghouse High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Bessie A. Rich, Forest Park High School, Baltimore, Md.; Elizabeth H. Ryder, Pottsville High School, Pottsville, Pa.

Section B. Social Problems, with Particular Reference to Integration of Peoples.

Chairman: Dorothy W. Furman, Bureau of Curriculum Research, New York City.

Discussants: Howard R. Drake, Aldan High School, Lansdowne, Pa.; Edythe D. Myers, Baltimore Public Schools, Baltimore, Md.; Albert J. Wahl, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.; Leonard B. Irwin, Supt. of Schools, Haddon Heights, N. J.

Section C. Political Problems, with Particular Reference to Regional Planning.

Chairman: Joseph B. Hillyard, Baltimore County Public Schools, Towson, Md.

Discussants: Melville J. Boyer, Allentown High School, Allentown, Pa.; Anna Grau Obenauf, Shaler High School, Glenshaw, Pa.; Charles W. Ray, Malverne High School, Malverne, New York; Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

Section D. Teaching Present-Day Problems in the Elementary School.

Chairman: John H. Niemeyer, Headmaster, Oak Lane Country Day School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Discussants: Mary A. Adams, Director of Elementary Education, Baltimore, Md.; Muriel L. Crosby, Supervisor of Elementary Education, Wilmington, Del.; Tompkins B. Smith, Administrative Assistant to the Superintendent in charge of Elementary Education, Lancaster, Pa.; Florence E. Taylor, Professor of Education, Pennsylvania State University; Juanita Winn, Elementary Supervisor, Washington Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

Section E. Studying Present-Day Problems at the College Level.

Chairman: Luther V. Hendricks, Chairman, Social Studies Department, State Teachers College, Edinboro, Pa.

Discussants: Robert W. Edgar, Professor of Education, Queens College, Flushing, New York; John A. Munroe, Professor of History, University of Delaware; Hervey P. Prentiss, Chairman, Social Studies Department, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa.; H. T. Wieand, Chairman, Social Studies Department, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pa.

LUNCHEON SESSION

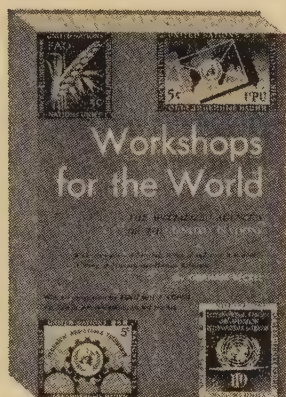
Chairman: George I. Oeste, Germantown High School, Philadelphia, Pa.; President, Middle States Council for the Social Studies.

Greetings from the Lancaster City Public Schools: O. H. Aurand, Superintendent.

Address: "The Role of the Social Studies Teacher in the Interpretation of Current National Problems," Edwin R. Carr, University of Colorado; President, National Council for the Social Studies.

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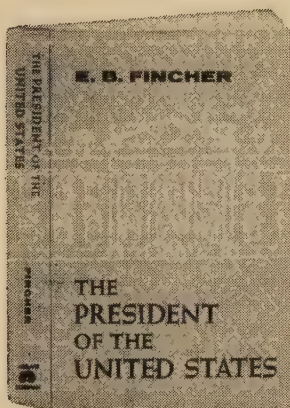
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